LANGUAGE ACQUISITION BY A MULTICULTURAL GROUP - A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF A SAMPLE OF JAMAICAN, GREEK, TURKISH AND BRITISH STUDENTS ATTENDING A LONDON COLLEGE ~~FOR~~ OF FURTHER EDUCATION IN AN ATTEMPT TO ASSESS THEIR PROGRESS IN ACHIEVING A COMMAND OF STANDARD BRITISH ENGLISH

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A B S T R A C T

This investigation compares the proficiency of Jamaican, Greek and Turkish-speaking, and British students in Standard British English and of the progress they make in improving their command of it. The main hypothesis to be tested is that West Indian students have as much difficulty in learning Standard British English as do students for whom English is a second or foreign language.

During two academic sessions a battery of seven English tests, six of which were constructed specifically for the purposes of the investigation, were administered to a sample of 234 Jamaican, Greek, Turkish and British students following full-time courses in a London College for Further Education. Two of the tests were readministered and difference scores calculated. In addition the sample completed standardised verbal and non-verbal intelligence tests and a test of listening discrimination which was also specifically constructed for the investigation. Information on the sample's educational, social and linguistic background was collected by means of a questionnaire completed during individual interviews.

Following computer analysis of two of the English tests, the subsamples' performance on the English Test Battery and on the intelligence and Listening Discrimination tests were compared by t and median tests; the relationship between the background variables and test performances was investigated by t-tests and correlation in an attempt to determine the factors responsible for variation between the subsamples' initial proficiency and progress in Standard British English as measured by the English Test Battery. The results are not conclusive but the statistical analysis suggests that the Jamaican subsample performed less well than the other

subsamples on the criterion and the independent variable tests and that none of the subsamples, whatever their origins, made any significant progress in improving their command of Standard British English. The data was not suitable for analysis of co-variance but results indicate a possible significant relationship between the Jamaican subsample's performance on the criterion tests and their performance on the independent variable tests, the length and level of their education in Britain and the degree of urbanization in their backgrounds.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Section 1: Immigration into the United Kingdom with special reference to West Indians

Although the United Kingdom has had a long history of immigration the early 1950's witnessed the beginning of a new phase, the entry of substantial numbers from the Commonwealth - from Asia, Cyprus and the West Indies.

During the second world war West Indians had been recruited into the British armed forces and many had been stationed in the United Kingdom.[1] R. B. Davison[2] observes that some of these were drafted into factories to relieve the wartime labour shortage and this first taste of British working conditions and earnings encouraged them to return to Britain after the war. The West Indian islands, with their agricultural bias and capital intensive industries, offered less employment prospects than Britain and so the drift back began, gradually gaining momentum throughout the decade. Work was available in Britain and there were no restrictions on entry. John Power[3] notes that immigrants were needed to fill vacancies which were unpopular with British workers, in public transport and the factories, -

> '(West Indian immigration) came about because, in a free labour market it met demands for labour which otherwise would have remained unsatisfied.'

Recruitment posters, films and newspaper advertisements issued in the West Indies by the British Government and industry further encouraged prospective immigrants, as did the stories of 'golden opportunity' sent home by West Indians already in Britain. No official records were kept before 1962 but the Migrant Services Division of the West Indian Commission in London

estimated the annual figures for arrivals from the West Indies. These grew from a few thousand in 1951 to an estimated 26,441 in 1956. There were, however, those who returned home. In 1957 the race disturbances in Notting Hill Gate led to a fall in the rate of immigration and an increase in the number of West Indians leaving Britain. It is likely that the relationship between the rate of immigration from the West Indies and employment vacancies in Britain would have continued if there had not been a call in Britain for restrictions on entry. In 1961, Butler's Conservative administration brought before parliament the Commonwealth Immigrants Bill. Rumours of this reached the West Indies and there was a rush to beat the threatened controls. The late Hugh Gaitskill, leader of the Opposition at that time, had this to say during the second reading of the Bill -

> 'There has been over the years an almost precise correlation between the movement in the numbers of unfilled vacancies, that is to say, employers wanting labour, and the immigration figures.' [4]

He cited figures[5] for 1956-60 on the 'Labour Demand Index' and 'Arrivals from the West Indies' which supported his statement. These are given in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1

Year	Labour Demand Index	Arrivals from the West Indies
1956	934,111	26,441
1957	725,271	22,473
1958	535,186	16,511
1959	653,120	20,397
1960	848,542	45,706

The inflated figures for 1960 and reason for them were noted by Dr. C. Peach[6] -

> 'It is ironic that the large increase in the movement was due to the fear of governmental control, while the government adduced the need for control from the same large increase.'

The following year the Bill was passed and became the 1962 Commonwealth Immigrants Act, the first restriction on Commonwealth immigration. The Act instituted a system of admission by voucher, issued by the Ministry of Labour to all Commonwealth citizens wishing to work and settle in Britain. There were three categories of voucher, A for those with a specific job to come to, B for those with no specific job but with specialised qualifications, for example teachers and nurses, and C for the rest. In practice, very few C voucher holders have been admitted since 1962 and the numbers of immigrants declined in the period immediately following the Act. By 1963, however, the numbers had again risen due to the arrival of the dependants of men already in Britain. The wives and children under 16 of a Commonwealth immigrant already admitted had absolute right of entry and in 1962, 90 per cent and in 1963, 98 per cent of the West Indians entering Britain were women and children.

In 1964 the category C vouchers were discontinued, and in July 1965 the Labour government imposed a maximum limit of 8,500 on the total number of vouchers to be issued annually. Further restrictive measures were introduced in 1968; the Act was extended to cover those possessing citizenship of the U.K. and colonies if they were without 'substantial personal connection' with Britain, that is, if their parents or grandparents had not been born here. This was the time of the exodus of Asians from Kenya and the measure served to prevent many settling in Britain.

The following year the Immigrants Appeals Act was passed. Commonwealth citizens gained the right to appeal against the refusal of an entry certificate, admission, and deportation (except where deportation was on the recommendation of a court following conviction for an offence punishable by imprisonment). Aliens were granted a similar right of appeal by the Aliens (Appeal) Order. Then, in 1971, all former Acts were replaced by a further Immigration Act. Distinguishing between 'patrials' and 'non-patrials', the Act removed the automatic right of Commonwealth citizens with work

vouchers to settle in the U.K. Whereas the patrial is granted 'right of abode' and cannot be deported, the non-patrial is subject to immigration control. I. A. Macdonald[7] criticises the Act in the following way -

> 'The deterioration in the status of the migrant worker contrasts with the widening of the categories of persons who have an unrestricted right to enter the U.K. The effect of the patrial section in the new Act is to free from immigration control thousands, and possibly millions, (the exact number is not known) of Commonwealth citizens living outside the U.K. The important point is that nearly all of those freed are of European origin from the old Commonwealth, Australia, New Zealand, etc. The contrast is stark; on the one hand you have large numbers of white Commonwealth citizens freed from restrictions; on the other hand black Commonwealth citizens, if they are allowed in at all, are subjected to more rigorous control than ever before.'

A patrial is a U.K. citizen or a citizen of a Commonwealth country who satisfies certain conditions. These are by -

(a) birth in the U.K.,

(b) having a parent who is a U.K. citizen, provided one has been born before 1948 and that one's father did not also acquire citizenship by descent,

(c) adoption by a male U.K. citizen,

(d) having settled in the U.K. for five years,

(e) being a woman married to a patrial,

(f) by registration.

A citizen of a Commonwealth country is classed a patrial if his or her mother was born in the U.K., if she marries a patrial or if he or she becomes a U.K. citizen by registration.

Registration is discretionary under the terms of the 1971 Act and may be permitted if the applicant's mother is a U.K. citizen by birth or marriage to a patrial or if the applicant has resided in the U.K. for the five years previous to application or has been engaged in 'relevant employment', which requires ten years in a senior post or fifteen years in a junior one.

Children under eighteen are allowed to settle in the U.K. with their parents. If a non-patrial male is deported his wife and children under eighteen are automatically deported also. Deportation can be ordered if a

subject does not comply with any condition of admission, if the Home Secretary holds deportation to be conducive to the general good, or if a court recommends deportation for a convicted offence punishable by imprisonment.

A student who wishes to enter the United Kingdom has to provide the Immigration official with evidence of acceptance on a full-time (that is, fifteen hours per week) course of study at a recognised educational institution, that he can finance his course and keep himself, and that he will be able academically to follow the course. If the official thinks that the student wishes to seek employment or that his English is not sufficiently proficient for him to study in the U.K., he can refuse entry. A student is usually admitted for up to twelve months with a condition making it illegal for him to enter employment, unless the Department of Employment subsequently grant permission for vacation work. After twelve months he can apply for an extension but if it is felt that he is trying to prolong his studies for over five years he can be refused permission to register for the following session.

Various official bodies have been established since the first Commonwealth Immigrants Act in 1962. In that year the Government set up the Commonwealth Immigrants Advisory Council and following the main recommendation of the Council's Report, the National Committee for Commonwealth Immigrants, a voluntary body, was founded in 1964. Its main brief was 'to promote and co-ordinate voluntary local activities, organise conferences and research and, upon request, or on its own initiative, advise the Government on policy.'

In 1968 the N.C.C.I. was replaced by the Community Relations Commission, a statutory body subsidised by the Government with the aim of 'encouraging harmonious relations between the different ethnic groups within the community.' Part of its role is to co-ordinate the work of Community Relations liaison officers based in immigrant areas.

The National Committee against Racial Discrimination was also established in the 1960's with the aim 'to expose cases of discrimination and to demand political action to cope with them.'

In 1965 and 1968 the Race Relations Acts were passed to deal with discrimination on grounds of colour, race, ethnic or national origins. They are intended to cover the areas of employment, housing, public services and the general provision of goods and services. Discrimination is defined as 'differential treatment' and civil proceedings may be brought against anyone reported to the Race Relations Board if it is felt that a case can be established against them. Those accused of 'incitement to racial hatred' are subject to criminal proceedings.

In the two decades since the second world war, therefore, despite legislation to restrict immigration, Britain has progressed from a relatively monocultural to a multicultural society, from an almost monoglot to a polyglot one, and its institutions, legal, social and educational reflect this change.

Section 2: The Background of the Immigrant

(a) JAMAICA

i. The Economic Background

Jamaica is the third largest of the Caribbean islands, covering an area of 4,411 square miles. The population in 1970 was estimated as 1,861,300 and the growth rate as 1.5. Agriculture is still the occupation of over 40 per cent of the island's labour force; the bauxite and alumina plants, owned by Alcan Jamaica, a subsidiary of Alcan Canada, are capital intensive and provide few employment opportunities; tourism offers some employment, directly through the hotel and catering business and indirectly through the home crafts industry which is dependent on the tourist trade.

Unemployment is high amongst the youth who prefer to live in shanty towns around Kingston, the capital, and Montego Bay, rather than work on the land as their parents and grandparents have done. Dr. G. Cumper[1] has observed that one result of advances in medical care which have prolonged life expectancy, has been that the young people have had to wait longer to inherit farming land and that this has been a contributory factor in causing migration from the countryside to the towns.

M. G. Smith[2] reports two surveys which investigated the occupational choice of schoolchildren and adults in rural areas. P. C. C. Evans conducted a survey in 1957, asking children aged 10 to 16 years in 41 rural schools, the question - 'What work do you want to do when you leave school?' and 'What work do your parents want you to do?' None of the boys selected unskilled work and 29.2 per cent chose mechanical work as against 3 per cent farming. Although the majority came from farming families, only 2.2 per cent of the boys said that their parents wanted them to farm. Evans points to a formidable gap between reality and desire' with 42.7 per cent of the 10-year-old boys choosing professional work. By 14 years, however, this proportion had dropped to 16.6 per cent, representing a move

towards more realistic aspirations. They still did not choose to work on the land, however. Evans felt that the schools were partly to blame as their curricula were urban oriented and the parents tended to view education as the principal means of social mobility.

Smith himself had in 1955 surveyed the rural labour supply and had asked a sample of adults over fifteen years whether or not they were seeking employment and if they were to name the three types of work they preferred. The main occupation in the areas investigated was small-scale farming and although 78.3 per cent of the males farmed, 66 per cent of these said they were looking for work of another type. Two decades later the situation has not changed; there is still a movement away from agricultural work but there is very little alternative employment available.

During a field visit to Jamaica in 1973[3] the writer formed an impression of an imbalanced society with extremes of poverty and wealth, as signified, for example, by the large detached houses in the foothills of the Blue Mountains on the outskirts of Kingston and the corrugated metal and board hovels in the shanty townships. This view is upheld by Dr. G. Cumper[1] in his description of the society -

> 'at one end of the income scale we found people who were poor, propertyless, black, in unskilled occupations, distrustful of the police, living in common-law unions and attending churches of local origin, while at the other end of the income scale would be people who were rich, white, in managerial or professional jobs, firm supporters of the police, legally married and adherents of "respectable" churches.'

The relation between colour and class implicit in this analysis has been explored in detail by Dr. Fernando Henriques[4] who traces its origins back to the aftermath of slavery.

The presence of wealthy tourists driving new cars, displaying expensive cameras and buying luxuries in the exclusive shopping arcades adjacent to the hotels, increases the frustration of the youth who sometimes turn to violence as their only means of acquiring the symbols of affluence, and

therefore status for themselves. The newspapers carry frequent reports of murder and theft and the presence of armed security guards throughout the island testifies to the insecurity of the majority of the population.

ii. Family background

Fernando Henriques[4] defines four types of Jamaican family - the Christian family where the couple is legally married, faithful concubinage, a common-law marriage, the maternal or grandmaternal family where there is no regular male presence in the home, and the keeper family where a man supports more than one household. He links the type of family with social and economic status implying that only the upper classes can afford legal marriage. Edith Clarke,[5] in her detailed study of the family in three Jamaican communities, supports this view. As the majority of the population are not affluent, Henriques[4] describes 85 per cent of them as lower class and most families as the maternal, grandmaternal or keeper variety. Katrin Norris[6] estimates that 70 per cent of the children in Jamaica are illegitimate, which carries virtually no social stigma but, on the contrary, improves their mothers' marital expectations by demonstrating her fertility.

Most frequently the men leave the women to look after the children while they follow seasonal agricultural work or emigrate to the U.K., America or the Virgin islands. The women follow later or, where they have no steady partner, emigrate themselves to earn money abroad to send home to their families. The children are left with a grandmother or aunt who is charged with the task of keeping them until the mother has secured her position abroad and is ready to send for them to join her. In the present investigation, 96 out of a sample of 114 Jamaican subjects claimed they had been left with their grandmother or aunt while their mother came to London, and 84 said that they had eventually been called to join a mother they could not remember and a stepfather they had never met before.[7] However, although the male influence may be lacking in the Jamaican home the kinship links between

siblings, cousins and aunts in the extended family are strong and the children feel secure, surrounded by so many relatives.

iii. The Language Background

Although the two extremes of language used in Jamaica may be termed Standard English and Creole, often referred to as dialect, the distinction between the two is blurred. The home language of most Jamaicans is Creole but Standard British English (S.B.E.) or the national variant Standard Jamaican English,[8] is the target language of government, business and education. Many Jamaicans regard Creole as 'broken English', an inferior dialect owing its origin to slavery and labelling its user as lower class. Standard English is given greater status. It is the accepted model for ambitious and educated Jamaicans and facility in it is regarded as a prerequisite for upward social mobility.

Creole differs syntactically from Standard English having its own structures and lexis. Linguists have attempted to define the differences between the two codes and, at the University of the West Indies, are currently stressing the need for a full-scale contrastive analysis.[9] In practice, the speech of most Jamaicans contains a mix of Creole and Standard English forms; even where the situation is code fixed and the goal is Standard English. J. F. Green[10] refers to 'a continuum, a gradual transition from Standard English to heavy Creole', the particular blend used depending on the formality of the occasion and the class and educational level of the speaker. Code switching is common and often involuntary where the speaker is more familiar with Creole and has weak control over his command of Standard English.

Much of the concern focused on the relationship between Creole and Standard English is due to its effect on educational attainment in the schools.[11] The official medium of instruction in the Primary and Secondary schools is Standard English and although the teachers themselves may have a

less than adequate command of it the pupils are expected to write Standard English, if not speak it, and to study textbooks written in it. If Creole and Standard English were two quite separate languages, the latter could possibly be taught as a foreign language. This is not feasible, however, as there are many similarities which themselves are sources of interference making it difficult for the pupils to distinguish between the two codes, let alone learn the Standard. This has led to discussion as to whether the vernacular, that is Creole, should be used as a medium of instruction in the early school years. This has been decided against, partly because there is no universally accepted standard form of written Creole, it being very much a spoken dialect. The situation however is one where the educational progress of many pupils is hampered by their inadequate command of Standard English. In 1959, Dr. Le Page wrote[9] -

> 'You have got a great many children in schools in Jamaica, who are losing the value of 75 per cent of their classroom time simply because the language that the teacher is using isn't producing any response in them because it is not their native language.'

And in the resumé of the research papers submitted at the 1965 Conference on Language Teaching, Linguistics and the Teaching of English in a Multi-lingual Society[12] it is noted, according to D. R. Craig, M. Alleyne and M. Myers -

> 'that Standard English is outside of the cultural setting of the Creole speaker, that he has no share in the generation of this alien language and must learn its forms by rote, hence much of the Standard English section of the Creole speakers' verbal experience is unreal, and in the extreme is based on secondhand and half understood cabalistic signs.'

Most of the blame for the high failure rate at G.C.E. 'O' and 'A' level is placed on the linguistic background of the candidates and on the failure of the schools to equip their pupils with an adequate command of Standard English. The Jamaican Ministry of Education Annual Report for 1972-73 refers to the 'formal results of secondary education' as 'distressing'. At 'O' level in 1972, the pass rate was 50 per cent. Out

of 30,876 papers taken, only 15,433 passed. Of the 4,900 candidates only 1,183 obtained passes in five or more subjects, and many of these had not passed English language. At 'A' level the pass rate was 41 per cent. Although the G.C.E. examinations are not administered by a local syndicate but by a British board, it cannot be blamed for the poor performance. A local examination in English would also require the candidate to write Standard English and even were the model Jamaican English as against British, the difference between Standard Jamaican English and Creole would handicap the candidate who was only proficient in the latter.

One cannot, however, regard Creole as the only or even the main influence on the educational progress of Jamaican pupils. The inadequate provision of education generally, poorly educated and trained teachers, lack of suitable buildings and equipment and the economic and social pressures which result in irregular attendance, must also hinder progress.

iv. The Educational Background

At each level the Jamaican educational system suffers from a shortage of adequately educated and trained teachers and appropriate textbooks and learning materials. In addition, the primary and all-age schools have insufficient classroom space, furniture and equipment. Yet in spite of the crowded conditions in the schools the 1972-73 Annual Report of the Ministry of Education noted that 'there were thousands of school children for whom there was no space in the schools.' Recognising the shortcomings, the report continued -

> 'On all sides there was clear evidence that the educational system had not been functioning well. Perhaps the greatest single indicator was the estimated half million adult illiterates in the national population of under two million.'

The educational system is based partly on the English tripartite system of Grammar, Secondary Modern and Technical, although it is in a transitional phase and there are several parallel systems operating at

the same time. A child of six may attend a basic, infant or private preparatory school. At six years he may transfer to a primary school and stay there until he is eleven, from there proceeding to a high school or junior secondary, the former if he passes his Common Entrance, a locally administered examination equivalent to the British 11+. Alternatively, he may attend an all-age school from six to fourteen years. In addition, there are three comprehensive schools for the eleven to sixteen year old group.

Many of the basic schools, of which 637 were registered in 1971[13] are little more than an extension of a child minding scheme. The mothers in a community pay one of their number to look after the three to six year old children during the day. Occasionally a building is made available, a church hall or disused shack perhaps. If not, a veranda or yard will suffice. Many such 'schools' are not registered and all of them are run by untrained staff who themselves often have only a few years of primary education. From 1966 to 1971, however, the Bernard Van Leer Foundation funded a project in early childhood education, directed in Jamaica by Dr. D. R. B. Grant. In four parishes a supervisory team contacted the basic school teachers and by fortnightly workshops, seminars and visits sought to impart a training in modern infant school methods emphasising group work and creative play. The selected teachers also attended two four-week residential courses at the University of the West Indies. During her field visit in 1973 the writer observed several basic schools whose teachers had participated in the project. Although some effects of the training were evident, for example, the numerous visual aids on the walls and the children working individually and in groups as against sitting in rows and chanting in unison, the teachers' own lack of education had made it difficult for them to understand the literacy and numeracy lesson guides which they had been given. They spoke dialect in the classroom and there

were, for example, many words spelt wrongly on the blackboards and visual aids. It was evident that when the children transferred to the primary or all-age school they would have acquired some incorrect habits in reading, writing and numeracy.

In 1973 there were 219 primary schools and 553 all-age on the island.[14] The Ministry of Education estimated[15] that although these were overcrowded, 71,500 six to fifteen year old children were still outside the school system. In primary schools a teacher-pupil ratio of 1 to 70 is not uncommon and the writer observed single classrooms where four separate groups of over sixty children worked, divided from each other only by blackboards. The pupils were crowded together on benches without room to write and the teaching emphasised chorused answers and rote learning. Other schools were better equipped, with smaller classes, but in all there is a serious shortage of trained staff. In 1973[14] only 44.4 per cent of the primary school teachers were classified as trained, with a further 8.6 per cent interns.[16] Four teacher training colleges provide two-year pre-service courses for intending primary and junior secondary teachers and two provide in-service courses of twenty-week duration for primary level teachers. Superimposed on merely a primary or rudimentary secondary education, the training is recognised by the Ministry of Education to be inadequate. However, because of the urgent need to train new teachers and at the same time to upgrade existing ones little can be accomplished at present to remedy the situation.

Another serious problem at the primary level is the irregularity of attendance. Many of the children, particularly in the rural areas, live with their grandmothers who rely on remittances from relatives abroad to keep them. Often because those remittances are insufficient to provide clothing and writing materials the children are kept away from school. At other times they are needed to look after younger siblings or to help with farming. The Ministry of Education noted in 1973[14] -

> 'Attendance is...very irregular, the average being just about 60 per cent of the enrolment. This poor attendance, especially on Fridays, could well be one of the major causes of low attainment levels in most of the schools.'

There is at present no compulsory registration of pupils who are not obliged by law to attend. Indeed there would not be room for them all if they did.

The junior secondary schools, which correspond in status to the British Secondary Modern, were intended to

> 'equip children in the age group twelve to fourteen with a minimum degree of skill to be better able to service the manpower needs and in this regard to expand the employment horizons of persons entering the labour force at the age of fifteen years.'[17]

Primary school pupils who fail the Common Entrance examination are assigned places in junior secondary schools where the writer noted that most of the staff, only 3.0 per cent of whom are graduates and only 67.5 per cent trained, would have preferred to teach in high schools had their own qualifications been better. They viewed most of their pupils as unintelligent failures who were not capable of academic success. Discipline tended to be weak. There were one or two exceptions where the principal and staff had, for example, involved their school in the local community and established a number of experimental farming and technical projects, but in general the atmosphere was one of disillusionment.

The 1972-73 report of the Ministry of Education[14] estimated that only 7.5 per cent of each age cohort entered one of the forty grant-aided high schools. Before 1973 the majority of high school pupils paid fees. Only the 2,000 who passed highest in the Common Entrance examination received free places and the next 2,000 aided ones. To reverse the trend where the majority of the free places went to privileged children from preparatory schools, 70 per cent of the free places were allocated to primary school pupils. Political pressures for free secondary education led the government

to abolish fees in high schools and the university with effect from September 1974 and to increase the school leaving age to sixteen. This expansion without an attendant increase in qualified staff, however, could only lead to a deterioration in the quality of education.[18] Thus in 1973 59.2 per cent of the high school staff were graduates but only 32.0 per cent were professionally trained. Both the high and junior secondary schools are still dependent on American and British volunteer teachers. Under the National Service Programme school leavers with a few G.C.E. 'O' levels were appointed as teachers in secondary schools after only a brief orientation course. Others without even 'O' levels were recruited as primary school teachers. Lacking training, many of the high school staff rely on formal teaching methods. The writer witnessed English lessons where clause analysis was taught, a technique no longer required for 'O' level G.C.E. and of dubious value in helping the pupils increase their command of Standard English. The high failure rate at 'O' level, particularly in English, testifies to the failure of most high schools[19] to undo the damage caused by the poor quality of primary education and to counteract the influence of the Jamaica dialect.

The staff of the School of Education at the University of the West Indies are exploring methods of improving teaching at all levels, particularly with regard to English.[20] Improvement, however, will be gradual. In the meantime, teachers of Jamaicans in Britain should realise that many may enter the British primary and secondary schools having had only a rudimentary basic primary or junior secondary school education which will have inculcated habits of rote learning and passivity in the classroom.

v. Conclusions

The Jamaican child or young person coming to live in Britain experiences such a great change of environment, climatic, social,

educational and, perhaps most important, family, that the term 'culture shock' has been used approximately to describe it. Many have left well-loved grandmothers or aunts with whom they have lived most of their lives and have arrived in Britain to be greeted by a mother they neither remember nor recognise and a stepfather they have never previously met. There may also be younger half siblings, born in Britain, to whom they will have to adjust, as well as to the climate and unfamiliar physical environment. Within a few days they may start school and often have to make friends and attempt to fit into a class, part way through the academic session. Their mixture of dialect and Standard Jamaican English may make it difficult for them to understand the teachers or to make themselves understood. They may be puzzled to hear the written English which was acceptable to primary school teachers back home criticised by their new teachers who may not be familiar with the patterns of Jamaica dialect and standard nor patient with a child who appears continually to make the same grammatical errors.

The following three extracts are taken from autobiographical essays written by Jamaican subjects in the present investigation.

> 'I was brought up by my grandmother, who had not really given me time to miss my parents. She was very good to me. At the age of ten, going on to eleven, I came to join my parents in this country. I was sad to leave but happy as I would be seeing my parents for the first time in nine years. The reunion was a happy one. After meeting my parents I realised that they still loved me very much. This made me unbelievably happy, as I thought that they did not want me, otherwise they could not have left me in Jamaica.'

> 'I hadn't lived with my mother for at least thirteen years and saw her for the first time in nine years early this year. When seeing my mother for the first time this year, I realized I couldn't accept her as my mother. I also knew I didn't have any love or affections towards her. I have found it very difficult to have any emotional feeling towards anybody.'

> 'I did not want to leave my home, all my family and friends for a strange land. I cried and rebelled but it was no use. I left Jamaica on a nice sunny morning, on the 19th of September 1969. I arrived in London on a cold grey morning. I cried and pleaded with my mam and dad to send me back home but all they could say was "You will get to like it here." I stayed at home three weeks before I started school.'

These represent differing reactions to the same experience but each illustrates the feeling of unfamiliarity and isolation and the need to adjust rapidly to a changed situation. Taking all the facts into consideration it is hardly surprising that the low educational attainment of many pupils who have entered British schools after joining their families from Jamaica (or from any West Indian island) should be a current cause for concern.

(b) CYPRUS

Cyprus, like Jamaica, is a predominantly agricultural island, with approximately 600 small villages and six district towns which are market as against industrial centres. Britain took over the administration of Cyprus from the Turks in 1878 and in 1914 it became a British colony, achieving independence in 1960.

Greeks on the island outnumber Turks by approximately 5 to 1, and the two groups form separate communities with different languages, religions, cultures and independent educational systems. Unlike Jamaica, Cyprus did not copy the British educational system. Greek and Turkish Cypriots feel themselves a part of either Greece or Turkey and the curricula of their respective schools reflect this allegiance. Textbooks, and often teachers, are brought over from the Greek or Turkish mainland.

Elementary education in both the Greek and Turkish parts of the island is free for the six to twelve year olds and although attendance is not legally enforced most children do attend. Robin Oakley[21] estimates that 70 per cent of elementary school leavers transfer to the secondary schools, which are located in the larger villages and towns, even though they are required to pay fees. There is no university on the island; students tend to go to Greece, Turkey or Britain. There are two Teacher Training Colleges, however, for elementary school teachers. Oakley also notes that the majority of the population are literate and that 1 in 7 Cypriots over the age of ten, have some knowledge of English. He describes the linguistic code of the

Greek (and presumably this applies to the Turkish as well) parents as restricted in vocabulary, sentence structure and range of tenses and observes that although kinship ties are strong and children are given security by the family, they are not encouraged to play with toys or to indulge in imaginative games. Rather, they are encouraged to behave as adults and assume responsibility at an early age.

As with West Indians, most Cypriots in Britain came after the second world war to find work or better jobs. Some, however, came as a result of the hostility between the Greek and Turkish communities on the island. There are fewer mainland Greek and Turkish immigrants in Britain than there are Cypriots.

Greek and Turkish speaking children may experience less culture shock than Jamaicans on arrival in Britain. They are likely to travel with their parents and siblings and their families will probably protect them from the feelings of insecurity and isolation experienced by many Jamaican children who arrive alone to join a family they do not know. Speakers of Greek and Turkish, foreign languages in relation to English, expect communication problems and so are not likely to be disappointed in the way many Jamaicans are, when they find that English speakers do not understand them. Linguists are generally agreed that it is easier to learn two codes which differ substantially than two which are similar, as interference will be greater in the latter situation. Where Greek and Turkish are concerned, even the scripts differ from that of English. The Greek or Turkish speaking child is therefore likely to learn S.B.E. more rapidly than the speaker of Jamaican dialect.

Section 3: The British Education Authorities' response to Immigration

It was not until after the 1962 Commonwealth Immigration Act that the Government, and subsequently the local Education Authorities, recognised the need for a specific policy towards immigrant pupils.

The main recommendation of Ministry pamphlet No. 43, English for Immigrants, and of the second report of the Commonwealth Immigration Advisory Council, Command Paper 2266 (both published in 1963), was that immigrant pupils should be dispersed among the schools. Two years later this recommendation was repeated in D.E.S. Circular 7/68, The Education of Immigrants, which was reproduced in summary form in part 3 of the government White Paper, Immigration from the Commonwealth.[1] Circular 7/65 also recommended that immigrant pupils should be placed in special reception classes when they first joined the school and only integrate with the rest of the pupils when their English was considered adequate for them to understand the lessons. It should be noted that at this stage the West Indians were not considered to have a language problem. Suggestions for special English teaching referred to Asians, Cypriots and other pupils to whom English was a foreign language and not a second dialect. In January 1966 all schools were required to complete Form 7i (schools) in addition to the usual annual return, giving the number of immigrant pupils enrolled. The D.E.S. defined the immigrant pupil as 'a child born overseas or in Britain during the last ten years, of immigrant parents.' In section 2 of the form the immigrant children noted in section 1 were to be classified according to their knowledge of English. The criterion was 'the normal level of attainment in written and spoken English of local non-immigrant children in the separate age groups' and the four categories were, '(i) no problem, (ii) reasonably good spoken English, but weak in written English, (iii) some English, but needing further intensive teaching, (iv) no English.' In 1967 categories (i) and (ii) and categories (iii) and (iv) were amalgamated to form two new

categories, the first of which applied to 'Pupils whose spoken English is comparable with that of non-immigrant children (even though their written English may be weak) and who do not, therefore, require special tuition,' and the second to - 'Pupils whose standards of English, whether written or spoken, are so far below those of local non-immigrant children as to demand special tuition.' West Indians were included in the first category and therefore presumed to need no specialised English teaching. In the same year, however, the Schools Council, as part of the feasibility study of the teaching of English to immigrants directed by Miss June Derrick,[2] sent all Chief Education Officers a questionnaire for circulation to schools with more than ten immigrant children on the roll and drew attention to the linguistic problems faced by West Indians due to interference from their dialect. The Schools Council definition of immigrant pupil was based on proficiency in English and also had four categories -

'(a) children of Asian, African or European immigrant parents, whether born overseas or here, who have not been brought up to speak English as their first language,

(b) children of mixed marriages who have not been brought up to speak English as their first language,

(c) West Indians,

(d) other immigrant groups not covered by the above categories who are potentially a source of special linguistic difficulty to teachers in the school.'

The Schools Council questionnaire was issued in 22 L.E.A's. According to the returns 24,400 pupils were considered to have an inadequate command of English for educational purposes of whom 27 per cent were receiving some 'identifiable form of special language teaching.' When the infants were dropped from the sample the total number of junior and secondary pupils with 'inadequate English' was 18,000 of whom only 6,500 received special English teaching. Unlike paragraph 4 of Circular 7/65 and the second report of the Immigrants Advisory Council which had only emphasised the importance of better teacher-pupil ratios, the Schools Council stressed the need for more

teachers qualified to teach English as a second language and in 1965 and 1966 the Institute of Education, London University, ran one term in-service courses for this purpose.

The main report of the comprehensive survey into British race relations directed by E. J. B. Rose for the Institute of Race Relations,[3] published in 1969, included various suggestions regarding the education of immigrant pupils. The report stressed that -

> 'while the children of immigrants share the needs of all other children in the Educational Priority Areas and the long term problem of the deprived native child may well be greater, in the short term the children of immigrants have special needs which either have to do with language or with the problems of adjustment to a totally new environment and to an alien culture.'

The team's recommendations included an enquiry by the D.E.S. into the effectiveness of dispersal policies, the establishment of a new specialised branch of the inspectorate to be responsible for immigrant education, the revision of the syllabuses of colleges of education to prepare students for the education of children in a multi-racial society, an extension of nursery education and the provision of courses on teaching English as a second language. None of these recommendations have been fully implemented and different L.E.A's and individual schools are still experimenting in an ad hoc way with various methods to cope with the linguistic and social needs of immigrants.

Nicholas Hawkes, in 1966, conducted a critical survey of the educational provision for immigrant children in British schools. He noted five types of 'special action' employed by L.E.A's - full-time withdrawal classes, special separate reception centres, peripatetic English teachers, a policy of dispersal or 'purposeful avoidance of all these.' He stated that the L.E.A's were acting in two great isolation and often without adequate information and advice. Stressing the need for teaching English as a second language, he observed that most Education Authorities were reluctant to provide language tuition separately in case it should look like racial or national

discrimination. He also criticised some L.E.A's for following a policy of dispersing immigrants without making adequate special educational arrangements for them. He referred, for example, to the redistribution by busing of immigrant pupils in Southall, Ealing and Bradford in 1963. Dubious about the advisability of reception classes where immigrant pupils were kept entirely separate from other pupils, he recommended a period of full-time withdrawal for most lessons into a class with a specialised language teacher, combined with integration for 'activity subjects', such as craft, art, metal work, and for social functions. He also emphasised the need for research into the specific remedial needs of speakers of the various West Indian dialects. By remedial, it should be noted, Hawkes was not confusing the linguistic difficulties of West Indians with the learning problems usually referred to as remedial, for according to him 'there is no place whatever in a remedial class for children whose only required remedy is language.'

D.E.S. and Schools Council reports since 1967 have concentrated on specialised English teaching and have gradually accepted that West Indians should be included. Schools Council Working Papers 13, 29, 31 and 50,[4] published between 1967 and 1973 are all concerned with education for immigrant pupils, Paper 29 looking specifically at the linguistic needs of West Indian primary school pupils. These are all discussed in Chapter 2,[5] as are three D.E.S. Education Surveys in 1971 and 1972 which also deal with immigrants' educational requirements[6] and two reports of the Select Committee on Race Relations and Immigration, in 1973 and 1974.[7] None of the Schools Council Papers is concerned with further education, but D.E.S. Education Survey 13, 1971, The Education of Immigrants, is, for it contains a report on 'the situation in Further Education.' What emerges most clearly from this report is the need for increased remedial general education and specialised English courses for immigrants who lag behind their indigenous

peers in educational attainment and can only obtain 'low level' employment.[8] Paragraphs 130 to 139 of the Select Committee on Race Relations and Immigration Education Report for the session 1972-73 also discussed the educational provision for immigrants at the further education level and stressed the importance of special English courses for both immigrant secondary school leavers and adults.

It is evident that in the last decade there has been an increasing awareness on the part of the D.E.S. and L.E.A's of the need for special educational provision for immigrant pupils and discussion has centred on specialised language teaching. In spite of the recommendations reiterated by the various reports, there is still, however, a shortage of staff trained to teach English as a second language. Many primary and secondary school teachers and further education college staff are still largely ignorant about the linguistic problems of their pupils and students. This is particularly the case where West Indians are concerned. The authorities have accepted that a dialect speaker faces difficulties as great if not greater than a non-mother-tongue speaker of English but there has been insufficient research, dissemination of information, pre- and in-service training courses to develop an awareness of the problem. The Bullock Committee, whose report on the teaching of English[9] has just been published, expresses concern about this situation and recommends that L.E.A's should conduct regular surveys into the linguistic needs of immigrant children in general. It repeats the recommendations of the earlier reports cited above that nursery classes should be increased and should incorporate specialised English language tuition, that language specialists should be based in the secondary schools, partly to advise other subject teachers, and that the educational authorities' advisory service should include an adviser with special responsibility for the language development of pupils of overseas parentage. The committee also emphasised that -

'There is an urgent need for research into the specific problems experienced by West Indian children in learning to read, and the results of this study should be disseminated on a wide scale.'

Section 4: The case for specialised English teaching for West Indians in Britain

In Section 3 it is noted that the poor educational attainment of many pupils of West Indian parentage, relative to their peers from elsewhere, has been a cause of concern to the D.E.S. and Schools Council[1] and very recently, the Bullock Committee.[2] A paper published by the Community Relations Commission's Reference Division and Education Department in March 1974[3] also asserts that -

'it is the children from the West Indian background whose needs in terms of basic skill performance should be given highest priority...without positive actions these needs are unlikely to be seriously reduced in the short run; neither born here nor having a full education bring performance levels up to those of the indigenous population. As a higher proportion of pupils from minority home backgrounds are born in the U.K., so the mean performance will improve, but certain subgroups will continue in the immediate future to be below the indigenous population and even socially disadvantaged white groups.'

One could perhaps question the assumption implicit in these observations that length of stay in England or being born here will automatically improve the average educational performance of West Indians, but the general concern about the situation is evident. In the last few years many educationalists have come round to the view that West Indians may be the most seriously handicapped group in the British educational system and have mentioned the differences between the West Indian dialects and S.B.E. as the main reason.

There are syntactical differences between the dialects of the West Indies and most particularly between French and English-based Creoles. In Section 2 (iii) above there is a discussion about the complexity of language use in Jamaica with deep or heavy Creole at one end and S.B.E. at the other. An informally accepted local standard, Standard Jamaican English,

occupies a position midway between the two extremes. One would not wish to oversimplify an extremely complex situation but it could be asserted that although the deep Creole of the different islands varies, the local approximations to standard might have similar effects on the speakers' proficiency in S.B.E. That is, the differing dialects of West Indians in Britain might cause similar types of interference in their attempts to produce S.B.E. structures.

West Indian children suffering the effects of culture shock, as described in Section 2 (v) above, might benefit from being encouraged to use their dialect occasionally, perhaps, for creative writing and drama. However, S.B.E. is used as the medium of instruction in all British educational institutions, except where Welsh is used; it is the language of textbooks and of examinations, and essential for communication within and integration into British society. Without it the West Indians' choice of employment is narrowed. Regional British accents and slight variations in syntax are acceptable, but educated Standard English is the status language and usually a prerequisite for upward social mobility. To deny the West Indian the opportunity to learn S.B.E. as an alternative to West Indian Standard and dialect could be to condemn him to a low social status in what is still a highly class conscious society. W. H. Whitely,[4] discussing the relationship between standard languages and dialects stresses the need for access to both codes -

> 'It seems to me that the important thing for the individual is to maximise his role and code competence. It is role and code versatility that is rewarding, and role and code limitation which impoverishes.'

There have been many investigations into the relationship between language and thought, those of Pavlov, Luria, Vygotsky, Piaget, Bruner, Skinner and Chomsky[5] being the best known. It would not be appropriate to describe here their individual theories but although they may disagree

as to the exact nature of the relationship they all indicate a link between cognitive development and the acquisition and use of language. Basil Bernstein[6] and Dennis Lawton[7] have both explored the influence of social class background on the language of English mother tongue speakers and have developed theories of linguistic deprivation. Bernstein has described middle class and working class languages respectively as elaborate and restricted codes. He argues that the latter, grounded in concrete experience, is likely to impede certain types of conceptualisation, for example, the ability to perceive abstract relationships, and that it involves a generally inferior, less sophisticated use of language. Such theories of language deprivation are central to the controversy in the United States as to whether what has been called Negro Non-Standard English, which shares many structural patterns with the West Indian dialects,[8] is a code inferior to Standard English. The opposing theories have become known as the deficit and difference positions, the former asserting that Negro Non-Standard is a restricted code and the latter that it is no less elaborate than Standard English, only different. Some of the research in this field is described in Chapter 2, Section 3.

R. A. Hall[9] defines a creole language in the following way -

> 'A pidgin language is, by definition, one whose structure and lexicon have been drastically reduced, and which is native to none of those who use it. A creole, likewise by definition, is a pidgin language which has become the native language of a speech-community. Both pidgins and creoles have clearly definable and describable grammatical structures which, however, differ markedly from those of the "full-sized" source languages from which they are historically derived.'

This implies that West Indian creoles or dialects are more restricted than Standard English, the source language. He also states, however, that a creole entails a broadening of reference because the semantic field of the parent language has to be covered by a reduced lexis. Exponents of the difference theory argue that Negro Non-Standard, or West Indian Creole,

can express the same concepts as the Standard but do it in a more concise way, by using a more limited range of structure and lexis.

Whatever the conclusions regarding the relative sophistication of Standard English and West Indian dialect and the latter's influence on the West Indian's cognitive development may be, it can be argued that the West Indians in Britain should be helped to become proficient in both codes. At each educational level, primary, secondary and further, most require special help if they are to master the written syntax of S.B.E. Because children tend to conform to the language usage of their parents and siblings, those born in Britain of West Indian parents may have an imperfect command of S.B.E. Most teachers are not acquainted with Creole syntax or techniques for teaching English as a second language. Many do not recognise that children of West Indian parentage have a specific language problem. Even where the teacher is a language specialist and fully aware of the situation, difficulties may arise. R. N. Murray, Director of the University of the West Indies Institute of Education, describes the problem as follows -

> 'The need for a special approach to the West Indian language situation arises mainly from the fact that the children possess a vocabulary which is very largely English and a grammar and details of usage which diverge sharply from English in many instances. The result is that the ability of West Indian children to recognise educated West Indian English speech is far greater than their ability to produce the same speech. This creates the misleading impression among children that they already know what the teacher is trying to teach them. Thus, unlike the foreign learner of English, they never have the satisfaction of knowing, stage by stage, that they have mastered new language structures. They find it hard to develop much interest in learning structures which they already recognise - even though they cannot normally produce the structures themselves.'

The methods used to teach English as a foreign language, or even a second language, are generally not suitable. The West Indian already has a passive, working knowledge of many of the structures of S.B.E. and may not take kindly to drills and pattern practice designed for those learners meeting a structure for the first time. Interference from the dialect will

be greater than that from a totally different first language, the structures and lexis of which differ in all respects. Psychological theories concerning learning[11] stress that where a subject is required to learn two sets of data which differ only slightly he becomes confused and probably forgets both. He is more likely to retain sets of data which differ significantly from one another. Thus a Cypriot or Asian should find it easier to learn S.B.E. than a West Indian. Consider the present tense concord in S.B.E. A West Indian who uses the patterns 'he go' and 'they goes' is likely to be very confused when his teacher requires him to write the opposite, 'he goes' and 'they go'.

The influence of West Indian pronunciation and syntax is likely to inhibit a child's progress in learning to read. An English child in reading has to vocalise written symbols in terms of his own sound system. A West Indian child has both to vocalise and translate sounds from the West Indian to the English system. The following are examples of differences between Jamaican and English sounds -

English sound			Phonetic symbol	Jamaican sound		Phonetic symbol
initial	th	(thin)	θ	t	(tin)	t
final	er	(thinner)	ʌ	a	(tina)	ae
medial	o	(spot)	ɒ	a	(spat)	ae
medial	v	(never)	v	b	(neber)	b
medial	t	(little)	t	k	(likl)	k
initial	h	(him)	h	-	(im)	
initial	w	(woman)	w	-	(uman)	
final	sk	(ask)	k	ks	(aks)	

A teacher continually correcting, that is, translating into the English sound system, a West Indian's pronunciation of what he reads, is likely to weaken his confidence and impede his progress.

Another factor is that a child increases his reading speed by recognising grammatical signals, for example, verb inflexions, which act

as cues hinting at what is likely to follow. The terms 'yesterday' and 'usually' will signal a certain tense to an English child but not necessarily to a West Indian.

A teacher who is ignorant of the syntax of West Indian dialect, may infer that a West Indian child is a slow learner because he continually makes the same structural 'errors' in his writing and appears to experience difficulty in learning to read. One unfortunate effect of this situation has been the number of West Indian children who have been wrongly placed in schools for the educationally subnormal instead of being given specialised help in English. In 1971 the D.E.S. estimated that 6.5 per cent of pupils in E.S.N. schools were defined as immigrants compared to 3.3 per cent in maintained schools and that the incidence of West Indian pupils in the E.S.N. schools was four times the national average.[12] In that year, Bernard Coard published a pamphlet entitled 'How the West Indian child is made educationally subnormal in the British school system' in which he claimed that large numbers of West Indian children in E.S.N. schools had been wrongly placed, to the detriment of their 'job prospects for life' and that the authorities were doing 'very little to stop this scandal.' He gave three main reasons for wrong placement - 'cultural bias' whereby no account is taken of the linguistic differences between West Indian and 'standard classroom English', 'middle-class bias' which refers to a form of self-fulfilling prophecy by which the teacher and educational psychologist expect the working class West Indian child to fail and thereby indirectly ensure that he does, and 'emotional disturbance bias' which he believed was caused mainly by culture shock. Coard also discussed the use of intelligence tests which he suggested were biased towards middle class attitudes and norms.

Although Coard's views may be an over-statement, more recently the D.E.S. has itself expressed concern about the numbers of West Indians in E.S.N. schools. The concept of culture-fairness as applied to intelligence

tests has also been a subject of debate over a long period. Although it is generally accepted that verbal intelligence tests are more culturally biased than non-verbal ones, research has indicated that the latter are also culturally biased.[13] Current opinion seems to be that verbal and non-verbal intelligence tests may be used to measure ability to perform specific tasks in given cultural contexts and as such may be administered to different multi-cultural groups in a society, provided the results are interpreted in that light and that attempts are not made to use them to make sweeping comparisons regarding 'intelligence.' It is likely that the factors Coard describes, particularly the effect of the dialect and the degree of culture shock on performance, would lessen the validity of West Indian intelligence test scores as measures of educational potential. Some West Indian children, as of any cultural group, are likely to have learning problems, but the majority will be handicapped mainly by language difficulties.

If adapted to the requirements of West Indian pupils, some of the methods associated with teaching English as a second language may be effective. The West Indian must be helped to perceive the differences between S.B.E. and his own particular combination of standard and dialect. Written drills and substitution tables, for example, may teach him to distinguish between the two codes. Although the spoken and written forms of a language cannot be kept entirely separate, each influencing the other, for the West Indian it may be advisable to concentrate on the written form of S.B.E. It is doubtful whether he will ever achieve as complete control over S.B.E. as over dialect but if he can be made aware of the differences, he may be able to use the former when the situation requires it, at an interview or in an examination for example.

Unless he is enabled to do this it is likely that his career aspirations will continue to reach beyond his educational attainment. The D.E.S.

Education Survey 13, published in 1971, says this about immigrants in further education -

> 'lack of appropriate educational background and qualification is a major reason for failure to equate employment prospects with individual ability' and 'there is the immediate attraction of low-level employment which, without further training, may offer immigrants greater financial reward at the outset.'

While accepting the first observation, the writer considers that her experience in further education does not bear out the second. Most immigrant students in Colleges for Further Education, whatever their standard of English and general education, aspire after professional employment and are willing to remain on full-time courses for as many years as they believe necessary to gain the appropriate qualifications. They seem convinced that merely by attending a college they will eventually achieve academic success. The same D.E.S. survey mentions a similar attitude amongst their parents. Having noted that Careers Advisory Officers spend more time trying to place immigrants than other school leavers, the report continues -

> 'They (Careers Advisory Officers) sympathise with the natural aspirations of immigrant parents, many of whom, however, tend to believe that an extended period of education, of itself, will ensure better career prospects and fail to make a sufficiently practical assessment of their children's past educational background and aptitudes.'

The final report of the National Youth Employment Council published recently[14] also states that coloured school leavers may have difficulty in obtaining employment because they have unrealistic aspirations, and has this to say about West Indians -

> 'Among West Indians one particular source of difficulty and frustration is that although their nominal mother-tongue is English, the vernacular use of patois and their limited English vocabulary can place them at a disadvantage.'

A further cause for concern is the growth of violence in areas with high concentrations of West Indians. In an attempt to reduce it, in January of this year, £2 million was allocated through the Urban Programme

to local authorities, specifically for community schemes in West Indian areas. However, as long as West Indians continue to leave full-time education with an inadequate command of S.B.E. and a low level of general education it is unlikely that the situation will improve. Because they are unable to obtain employment suited to their aspirations, and often to their intellectual ability, their frustration may well find expression in social unrest.

Research is clearly needed to examine further the particular linguistic problems of West Indians and to suggest suitable teaching techniques and materials. While much attention has been given to these matters there have been very few controlled research projects.[15] The purpose of the present investigation is to measure the degree of proficiency in S.B.E. of Jamaican, Greek, Turkish and British Further Education College students and to compare their progress in attempting to improve their command of it. It is hoped that the investigation will contribute to an added understanding of the nature and causes of the difficulties experienced by West Indians in learning S.B.E. and so lead to an improvement in teaching techniques and assist in the production of learning materials suited to their particular linguistic requirements.

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CHAPTER 2

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Although a considerable amount of research has been concerned with integration of immigrant groups into British society and with educational difficulties, particularly regarding the language of their children at school, very little has drawn upon samples from Technical Colleges and Colleges for Further Education. In fact, the writer knows of none specifically concerned with students in further education and only one (Amya Sen: The Problems of Overseas Students and Nurses, N.F.E.R. 1970) which includes them in its sample.

This chapter gives details of research and studies which have some bearing on the present investigation. The samples are drawn mainly from primary and secondary schools but, in some cases, involve pre-school children and adults outside educational institutions. It is in four separate sections which to a certain degree overlap. Some investigations into language and intelligence testing are reported in Chapters 5 and 6.

Section 1: Research concerned with the sociological characteristics of immigrant communities in Britain.

In the past twenty years there have been a number of field studies and investigations concerned with the effects of immigration on British society and with the difficulties faced by the different immigrant groups.

During the late 1950's Sheila Patterson[1] conducted a detailed field study of a West Indian immigrants community in Brixton, South London. Her project, originally planned as a 'study of white-coloured relationships',

to follow the two-year investigation into race relations in Britain directed by Dr. Kenneth Little,[2] developed into a study of the process of absorption of the West Indians into the host community, exploring the fields of employment, housing and social and cultural life. Most of the West Indians in the study had found and kept jobs although not necessarily the ones for which they had hoped. In her view, the male migrants had begun to adjust to the 'discipline and demands' of British industrial life and had accepted, albeit unwillingly, 'their position at the bottom of the ladder as unskilled workers.' A small number, mainly skilled, had moved into the 'assimilatory phase' (the next stage after accommodation in her model of social adjustment). It was found that the migrants suffered from a greater shortage of housing than the local people and that their movement into white areas and their tendency to live in multi-occupied houses could be a cause of friction between them and their white neighbours. Social relations with the local people were mainly restricted to casual contacts in the shops etc. She concludes that the study found 'a fair degree of migrant accommodation in work, somewhat less in housing and the modest beginning of migrant acclimatization and local acquiescence in casual and formal social contacts.'

Following the 1958 race disturbances in Notting Hill Gate, the Mayor of Kensington set up a committee to suggest ways in which community relations in the area could be improved, and Pearl Jephcott, investigator for the North Kensington Family Study Committee, wrote an impressionistic report[3] based on nineteen months' field work. She studied an area within a radius of approximately seven minutes' walk from Ladbroke Grove Tube Station and her main conclusion was that multi-occupied housing was the chief cause of unrest. Migrants, most of whom were from the West Indies, were 'practically never' found in local authority housing and tended to be generally worse housed. There was a serious lack of outdoor playing

space for young children and of leisure time provision for the older adolescent girls. Her proposals were that all the residents should form self-help groups to improve the appearance of the area, organise refuse collection etc., and campaign for playing space, and that an intensive and sustained supporting programme was required from both official and voluntary agencies in co-operation with the residents.

In 1964, sponsored by the Institute of Race Relations, John Rex and Robert Moore began a study of housing in Sparkbrook, a 'twilight' zone of Birmingham, with particular regard to unofficial lodging houses established by immigrant groups. The view had been expressed that these lodging houses constituted a social problem, but Rex and Moore's study indicates that it was not the arrival of coloured immigrants in the area that made Birmingham's housing situation worse. They pointed to

> 'a process of discriminative and de facto segregation which compelled coloured people to live in certain typical conditions, and which of itself exacerbated racial ill feeling.'

R. B. Davison[5] studied the progress of a group of Jamaican immigrants in Britain by conducting a follow-up of a sample originally selected in Jamaica. During June 1961, the tenth passport of all those emigrating to the U.K. was marked by random choice of numbers and their holders interviewed. Addresses in Britain were obtained for 55 per cent of the men and 84 per cent of the women out of a total sample of 364. Of this total, 272 were contacted in Britain and interviewed by standardised questionnaires and in depth case studies were conducted for twenty of them. Information was obtained on housing conditions, employment, household budgets, the process of integration and the migrants' plans about their length of stay in Britain.

From the 1961 Census details were obtained regarding housing conditions and patterns of employment for eight population groups in seven London Boroughs. The eight groups consisted of families whose Head of household

had been born in England, Jamaica, other Caribbean islands, India, Pakistan, Poland, Ireland and Cyprus; the boroughs were the pre-1965 metropolitan ones of Lambeth, Stoke Newington, Hackney, Battersea, Deptford, Camberwell and Paddington.[6] From the information Davison concluded that the population groups had differential access to the various types of house tenure and that their housing conditions varied considerably. As regards over-crowding, defined as people living at a density of more than 1.5 persons per room, 8 per cent of households whose Head was born in England were classified over-crowded; 53 per cent whose Head was born in Jamaica; 63 per cent whose Head was born in the rest of the Caribbean and 41 per cent whose Head was born in Cyprus. With respect to house tenure, 53 per cent of the English population rented private unfurnished accommodation, 24 per cent were in council homes and 13 per cent were owner occupiers. In contrast, 61 per cent of the Jamaican population rented private furnished accommodation and 25 per cent were owner occupiers. The proportion of households with exclusive use of cold and hot water taps, fixed bath and water closet were 40 per cent of the households whose Head was born in England, 12 per cent whose Head was born in Jamaica, 8 per cent whose Head was born in the Caribbean and 24 per cent whose Head was born in Cyprus.

Davison examined the 1961 Census figures for the six occupational categories listed under the Standard Occupational Classification of 1960. In general the most desirable categories in terms of prestige and social class are 1 and 2, and the least desirable, 5 and 6. Proportionately more Jamaicans, Caribbeans, Pakistanis and Cypriots were in categories 5 and 6 than in 1 and 2. The two West Indian groups and the Irish had the lowest proportions of all groups in categories 1 and 2. The sample of Jamaicans also provided information regarding type of employment. Over one-third of the male subjects were in Engineering, Metal, Vehicles and

Chemical industries and 5 per cent were employed by British Railways. The remainder were in road transport, clothing and furniture manufacture, food-processing industries, building and construction, hospital and laundry work. Two-thirds of the women were employed in hospitals, textiles and clothing and light engineering. By the end of the second year of the survey, 40 per cent of the men and 49 per cent of the women had obtained employment through the help of a relative who already had contact with their workplace. Most of the remainder had found employment through chance application; very few had used employment exchanges. When questioned about work conditions, only five out of 216 subjects who replied made reference to alleged colour discrimination at work. Davison took this as evidence that 'racial frictions in British industry are minimal.'

With regard to unemployment figures, Davison found, from the 1961 Census, that immigrants were consistently above the national average. He observed that although this might be due to discrimination in employment it could be a result of the type of jobs that 'coloured immigrants' occupy. It might also apply only to newly-arrived, unskilled immigrants.

A detailed enquiry was conducted into the Jamaican sample's income and expenditure in an attempt to assess the economic position of their households. The figures obtained indicated a rise in living standards as measured by material possessions. Most of the subjects, however, had not been able to save. On the proposed length of stay in England, at the end of the first year 74 per cent of the men and 86 per cent of the women stated their intention to return to Jamaica 'some time'. By the end of the second year the percentage had increased to 81 per cent of the men and 89 per cent of the women. Davison regarded this as an indication that the sample had made little or no progress in settling down in England although he observed that it was not a particularly reliable guide. Slightly more reliable indications came from the numbers of those who intended to return within

five years - 30 per cent of the men and 22 per cent of the women, after the second year; 26 per cent of these men and 16 per cent of the women claimed to have saved money for their fare. It did not appear therefore that the Jamaicans planned to integrate permanently into British society.

In 1961 the Institute of Race Relations commenced sponsorship of a five-year survey directed by E. J. B. Rose, assisted by Nicholas Deakin. The terms of reference were to investigate British reactions to immigration and race, to review government housing, education, employment and welfare policies towards immigrants and to examine the parts played by the Churches, Police and voluntary agencies. The main report of the investigation[7] contains detailed sections on the history of immigration, theories of race and the cultural background of the main immigrant groups. It uses evidence from the 1961 census and the 1966 10 per cent sample census on demography, housing, employment and household expenditure and reviews government policy on immigration, housing, education, industrial relations, law, health and welfare and the work of the Churches and voluntary agencies. There is also a full account of the Political and Economic Planning and Research Services Ltd. report on racial discrimination[7] and of a similar survey carried out by Dr. Mark Abrams. In addition, the degree of adaptation or withdrawal of three immigrant groups, West Indians, Pakistanis and Indians, and the progress of the second generation, British-born children of immigrants, in the fields of education, employment, social contact and delinquency is examined. This view of the 'state of race relations in this country' was intended as a basis for policy making at all levels.

The main conclusion regarding employment (based on the evidence from the censuses of 1961 and 1966) was that 'the employment structure of coloured immigrant groups differs considerably and is generally less favourable (as far as it is possible to judge it in these terms) than that of the total population' and that 'the concentration of coloured immigrants

in certain sections of employment and their absence in others, coupled with the fact that there has been little or no change between 1961 and 1966, gives most cause for concern.'

The report stressed that the West Indians were the group which had the greatest difficulty in finding houses and that for immigrant groups generally, the cost and availability of accommodation put them at the greatest disadvantage when compared with the rest of the population.

The P.E.P. investigation was commissioned in autumn 1966 by the Race Relations Board and the National Committee for Commonwealth Immigrants. Its terms of reference were to investigate the extent of racial discrimination in areas not covered by the 1965 Race Relations Acts; namely, employment, housing and services such as car hire and insurance. 974 interviews were conducted with immigrants from the West Indies, Pakistan, India and Cyprus and 500 interviews with 'people in a position to discriminate', for example, employers, employment bureaux, Ministry of Labour Employment exchange staff and trade union officials. The survey covered six areas, two of which were in London and one each in Southern England, the Midlands, and two in the North. In addition to the interviews, 400 'situation tests' were carried out, in each of which the relative successes of three applicants for employment or accommodation, English, Hungarian and West Indian, were compared as 'an objective measure of discrimination.'

The general conclusion to the survey was that immigrants tended to under-estimate the amount of discrimination which in fact took place. This is in conflict with R. B. Davison's[5] conclusion regarding employment, that 'racial frictions in British industry are minimal.' Possibly more of his 216 subjects would have alleged racial discrimination if they had been fully aware of it and had also wished to refer to it.

The P.E.P. survey[8] reported that 72 per cent of the immigrants interviewed believed that employers did discriminate and that in half these

cases the belief was based on personal experience. 45 per cent of the West Indians, 35 per cent of the Indians, 34 per cent of the Pakistanis and 6 per cent of the Cypriots referred to such experience. In most cases discrimination took the form of refusal of employment and in half of them the employment applied for was as an unskilled worker. A sample of forty of the firms against whom claims were made was tested and an attempt was made to reproduce as exactly as possible the circumstances of the original claim of discrimination. In nine out of ten cases the claims were found to be justified. Fifteen employment bureaux were also tested. An Englishman and a West Indian with identical qualifications and another West Indian with better qualifications applied in turn for a job as accountant. The Englishman was notified of 23 vacancies, the West Indian with the same qualifications, of 5 and the West Indian with better qualifications, of 18.

The report states that the survey 'revealed that colour was a major factor in recruitment decisions.' There was no evidence that knowledge of the English language or possession of English academic qualifications and training 'protected a man from discrimination.'

In housing, just over two-thirds of the total sample in the survey believed that landlords did discriminate. This belief was strongest among the West Indians, 88 percent of whom professed it, followed by 55 per cent Indians and 44 per cent Pakistanis. Just under 40 per cent of the West Indians, 20 per cent of the Indians and 15 per cent of the Pakistanis reported personal experience of discrimination in housing. Very few Cypriots felt they were discriminated against. 'Test' applications were made by a West Indian, an Englishman and a Hungarian to 180 landlords (60 personally, 120 by telephone), 18 to accommodation bureaux and 30 to estate agents, covering all six areas. On 38 occasions the West Indian was informed by private landlords that the accommodation he had applied for had been taken, whereas the Hungarian and the Englishman were both told that it was vacant.

On one occasion the West Indian and the Hungarian were both asked for a higher rent than the Englishman. On two occasions the West Indian was refused or offered nothing by an accommodation bureau while the others were given addresses to view or put on a mailing list. On 16 occasions the West Indian was either refused or offered nothing by estate agents while the others were offered addresses. When interviews were conducted with the staff of accommodation bureaux it became evident that the situation was even more difficult for coloured applicants than the tests had indicated. The greatest difficult was with unfurnished flats or statutory tenancies. It was also noted that there was 'no less discrimination against the West Indian tester in his role as a hospital registrar than when he was applying as a bus conductor' ... 'in fact he tended to meet rather more hostility in his middle class role.' Situation tests were carried out for house purchase. In each of the six areas, seven estate agents were approached and on twenty occasions the West Indian was treated differently from the others, either by being denied access to properties, told that no mortgage would be available or quoted less favourable terms for getting one.

The report concluded that racial discrimination varied 'from the massive to the substantial' and that colour played an important part in it. In employment the coloured immigrant was twice as likely to be discriminated against as a white one, the latter experiencing virtually no discrimination in housing. J. B. Rose[7] observed that while the P.E.P. Report did not provide any new information it was the first systematic attempt to assess the extent of racial discrimination.

The Rose survey[7] included a report by Dr. Mark Abrams of an attitude survey commissioned in mid-1966 by Rose and his colleagues which attempted to measure the incidence of colour prejudice in the white population of Britain and the demographic characteristics of those members described

as highly prejudiced. The sample was drawn from two London boroughs, Lambeth and Ealing, and three county boroughs, Wolverhampton, Nottingham and Bradford, and contained approximately 2,500 subjects. As all these boroughs had a relatively high incidence of coloured residents, a national survey with a sample of 2,250 white adults was also carried out for comparative purposes, in December 1966 and January 1967, and the interviewing in March and April 1967.

Each subject interviewed was placed on a prejudice-tolerance scale by means of attitudinal questions. Examples of the questions are - 'If you had any choice would you particularly avoid having neighbours from any of these places - West Indies, India, Pakistan?' and 'Do you think the majority of coloured people in Britain are superior, equal or inferior to you?' In the former case those who said they would avoid having coloured neighbours even if they were professional people were given a 'prejudice score' of fifteen points, and in the latter those who said that coloured people are inferior and added that this was because of their colour, were similarly given a 'prejudice score' of fifteen points. The total prejudice score for each subject was then analysed in relation to social variables. Results indicated that none of these variables played a 'decisive part in determining the incidence of prejudice.' High prejudice scores were found to be a little above average among people who voted Conservative, were tenants of private landlords, went out to work and had visited Africa or Asia. Most of the other variables studied, for example membership of a Trades Union, failed to discriminate significantly between the 'prejudiced' and the 'tolerant' whites. One finding was that 90 per cent of the white subjects saw immigrants as working class and two-thirds saw them as unskilled. Dr. Abrams, however, concluded that the survey provided evidence that 'contrary to the general view, the majority of the population are tolerantly inclined.' Those living near coloured people tended to be more tolerant than those who did not, and the under thirty five-year-old

subjects appeared to have the greatest tolerance. Results indicated that in each of the five boroughs the adult white population contained two extreme groups - 10 per cent whose attitude towards coloured immigrants was 'highly prejudiced' and 35 per cent whose attitudes were 'almost' or 'entirely free of colour prejudice.' Between these extremes, 17 per cent just 'stopped short of unconditional hostility' and 38 per cent were 'predominantly free of colour prejudice.' The 10 per cent 'highly prejudiced' group was representative of all sections of the white population - male, female, all age groups and social classes, Conservative and Labour supporters, council and private tenants, etc.

Christopher Bagley, writing in 'Race' in January 1970[9] criticised the Attitude Survey on the grounds that the method of data analysis used might have underestimated the amount of prejudice indicated by the survey. Of the fourteen attitudinal questions, four were given special weight and assigned fifteen points (two of these are the questions reproduced above), and the remaining ten were assigned one point each. Three of the specially weighted questions referred to housing and the desirability of coloured neighbours and the fourth to their supposed inferiority. Bagley observes that the choice of items for special weighting and the amount of weighting given them were arbitrary. The reliability of the data or of the scales had not been measured. Although statistical techniques exist for calculating the weight to be assigned to particular items, Abrams had not used them.

Bagley himself conduced a secondary analysis of the same data[8] and formed a 'summated scale' in which the items were given equal weight. The internal reliability and relevant weights for the new six item scale were calculated by employing a fresh sample of 200 males in South London, to whom the Wilson-Patterson Scale of Conservative Values was administered in 1969, together with the 'prejudice' questions. The alpha reliability coefficient for the six item scale was measured as .67 which indicated a

satisfactory internal reliability. Weights were calculated for the scale by principal components analysis which revealed a 'racialist' factor. The weights were seen to be homogeneous based on their 'racialist' factor loadings. Bagley concluded that Abrams' questionnaire would have been a more accurate measure if no weights had been given to the individual items as against the ratio of 1:15.

Bagley also criticised the item cited above on the supposed inferiority of coloured people. The respondent was only scored as prejudiced if he said that inferiority was due to skin colour and not educational or social reasons. Bagley felt that to consider a man inferior on the grounds of different social behaviour or the amount of education received was also an expression of prejudice. In his calculation of the five boroughs scale a person was considered prejudiced if he referred to coloured people as inferior on any grounds whatsoever. His analysis of the data led him to calculate that a little under half of the sample displayed a marked degree of prejudice, a figure more than double that of Abrams.

There have been a number of investigations concerned with particular aspects of the relationship between immigrant groups and the welfare services. Based on her doctoral research, Katrin Fitzherbert[10] wrote a paper providing background information for child care officers working with West Indian immigrant groups. Her research was based on 150 case histories of West Indian or half West Indian children in long term care in the London County Council Children's Department during the Winter of 1964-65. Due to the traditions of fostering and informal adoption in the West Indies she found that most of the 150 sets of parents regarded their children being taken into long term care as an attractive prospect. The mother could go out to work or study without having to pay a child minder or place a burden on a relative, while in the long term the child received an excellent training and education. 'The parents looked forward to the day when they would

receive home cultured ladies and gentlemen.' This was a cause of friction with the child care officers who disliked the West Indians' 'open enjoyment' of the child care service and their 'lack of humility in using it.' The parents seemed unaware of the possible detrimental effects on the children of living in an institution. Thirty of the thirty five teenagers in the sample had come from the West Indies to join parents in England after years of separation and could not settle down in their new home. Seventeen of the sample had 'under age' mothers whose average age was fifteen and a half.

One reason why the number of West Indian and half West Indian children in care was rising was shown to be the Children's Department's reluctance to treat the West Indians as a separate cultural group with their own family patterns and child rearing traditions. Mutual misunderstanding was due not only to cultural but to linguistic difficulties. Too often the child care officers found the West Indian dialect unintelligible. Rather than lump West Indian parents into the category of 'inadequate social types' and place their children in institutions, Katrin Fitzherbert recommended that the Children's Departments should resist their reception into care, and to put her recommendations into practice she joined Lewisham Children's Department as assistant child care officer for five months. With a case load of 45 West Indian families, her aim was to find alternative solutions. 22 were confinement cases and for all but two she was able to find an alternative, usually using a relative of the mother to look after the child or, where possible, persuading the husband to alter his working hours during his wife's pregnancy. Out of her four children in long term care she managed to get two back home. While recognising that the families might resist having the children back initially, and that there might be many other problems to overcome, Miss Fitzherbert still insisted, after her five months' practical experience, that efforts should always be made to keep West Indian children out of long term care.

In 1965 Catriona Hood, T. E. Oppe, I. B. Pless and E. Apte[11] carried out a study of the health and development of one-year-old children of West Indian immigrants living in Paddington. Clinical experience and previous small scale studies had indicated that 'children of the coloured immigrant population were facing difficulties in growing up which differed from those which troubled the indigenous population.' Current paediatric practices were based on the assumption that social and environmental factors were 'powerful determinants of disease' and the team were concerned to obtain information regarding one of these factors - the amount and kind of maternal love the children were receiving.

The sample comprised all the West Indian one-year-olds living in Paddington, whose birthdays fell between January and October 1965. More than 90 per cent had lived in the area for nine months or more. Information was collected by a paediatrician who interviewed the mothers regarding medical history and gave the children a medical examination, and by a social worker who again interviewed the mother. G.P's and hospital and clinical records were also consulted. A Health Visitor Survey was conducted on a control group of non-West Indian families which revealed that 'in almost all of the facets studied, the West Indians are at a disadvantage: in employment, in housing and in health.' West Indian mothers had to cope with larger numbers of children and lived in more crowded conditions; fewer had the support of a 'consistent father figure' and 50 per cent were also concerned about children overseas. Although they used the health services 'at least as often as the control group', their children were hospitalized more frequently and were more prone to a variety of minor physical disorders. Hood et al suggested that although the West Indians and the control group used the health services to the same extent and shared the same environment, which was that of a 'relatively deprived community', other factors influenced the health of the West Indian children.

For example, the West Indian mother might not be able to use some of the advice received at the Health Centre. How could she give children room for play and 'free expression' if she and they were living in crowded conditions? Again, the child minder might not implement the advice that the West Indian mother had received. A further reason echoes the views of Katrin Fitzherbert on the mutual misunderstanding between child care officer and West Indian parent - the culture, attitudes and mores of the West Indian mothers differed from those of the health visitor and so could cause friction. One further possibility, not put forward by Hood et al, is that the health advisers in the clinics, presuming West Indians to be speakers of English did not try to simplify their language as they might have done to an Asian or Cypriot, with the result that the West Indian mother did not understand the advice given her.

Michael Rutter, William Yule and Michael Berger[12] conducted an investigation in an inner London Borough and in the Isle of Wight, the main aim of which was to compare the needs of children living in a large urban area with those living in small towns or in the country. A report of the investigation appeared in New Society 14 March 1974. As there were no children of West Indian families living on the Isle of Wight, West Indians were excluded from the London sample when the two areas were compared. The second stage of the investigation, however, involved an intensive study of the larger sub-groups in which 100 children from West Indian families in London were included. Information was obtained from an interview with each child's teacher and by individual psychological testing. Children born in the West Indies were compared with children born here to West Indian parents.

The main findings were that generally the children of West Indian families had a rate of psychological disorder similar to that of children of non-immigrant families living in London. At school, however, the former had a higher rate of conduct disorder, for example fighting and disruptive

behaviour, but not of emotional 'difficulties.' Regarding educational attainment, the West Indians performed less well than the non-immigrant children, the mean score for the former on the Neale Analysis of Reading Ability being thirteen months below that of the latter. Children born in the U.K. of West Indian parents, however, were ten months ahead of those born in the West Indies, although still behind the non-immigrant children.

Although the West Indian and non-immigrant parents had similar educational backgrounds, proportionately more of the former had unskilled or semi-skilled manual jobs. Many more of the West Indian mothers worked outside the home than non-immigrant mothers and the working hours of the former were longer. Housing conditions were 'worse' for West Indian families, twice as many living in overcrowded homes, although nearly half of them owned their own houses as against one-fifth of the non-immigrant families.[13] In the pre-school period many more children of West Indian families had been child minded by non-relatives. At home there were no differences in the rates of parental mental disorder or of criminal behaviour. West Indian fathers were found to be as much involved with their families as non-immigrant ones; their children were expected to help more at home and were more 'self reliant'. West Indian parents complained of lax discipline in schools and were considered by teachers to be 'too harsh' with their children at home.

Rutter et al concluded that while the belief about high rates of 'problem' behaviour in West Indian parents and children is largely unjustified, the poor educational attainment of some of the latter should be a case for concern and measures should be taken to alleviate it.

Most studies of immigrant groups in Britain have indicated that the majority of immigrants tend to be employed in unskilled or semi-skilled manual work.[14] In an investigation of immigrant groups in Bedford,[15] where a fifth of 70,000 inhabitants are immigrant, John Brown also notes that

'immigrants have come to take on the lower levels of work,' for example in the brick industry.

In 1969 the Department of Employment undertook a survey of seven firms which had for many years employed 'coloured workers.'[16] The aims of the inquiry were to obtain information on -

'1. The occupations in which coloured people were engaged; their movement into more demanding jobs; the extent to which they had been promoted or had promotion prospects.

2. Progress towards racial integration at work; difficulties encountered and their effect on work performance; relationships between workers of different races.

3. Consequential problems of supervision and management; and the methods used to overcome them.

4. The extent to which racial integration problems were likely to be perpetuated in some form or another.'

Seven firms of different sizes were selected, two engaged in engineering in the Midlands, one in retail food distribution in London and the Home Counties and two in food manufacture in London and the South East. During 1970 interviews were conducted with managerial and supervisory staff and with employees at all occupational levels. 40 coloured employees and a white control group, matched occupationally and 'environmentally' were selected. The interviewer's main aim was to elicit information as to how far 'integration' was being achieved, the definition of 'integration' being 'people of different races showing mutual acceptance of one another, in a spirit of goodwill.' Questions covered Company policy and practice, occupational tests, induction courses, occupational levels at which immigrants worked, rate of absenteeism, 'racial balance' in factories, advancement and promotion, under-utilization of manpower, labour turnover, relationships between employees and language and communication.

The main findings were that all the firms professed adherence to the principle of equal employment opportunities for all employees and to a non-discriminatory recruitment policy. None of them, however, had a

systematic induction programme for immigrants and little was done to help them adjust to their new working environment. Most of the supervisory staff informants felt that, without special assistance, most immigrants had little or no difficulty in learning the job and were as flexible as other workers. Of the total coloured work force in the seven firms, 50 per cent were in jobs above the unskilled level. The immigrants were said to be punctual but more often absent through sickness than other workers. As for 'racial balance' none of the firms had adopted a policy of dispersal. One instance of resentment due to the promotion of an Indian worker was quoted, and when the informants in the control group were asked whether they would be 'content' to serve under a competent coloured supervisor, it was evident that at least 7 per cent and at most 13 per cent might have 'reacted adversely'. In relationships between employees the interviews indicated that 92 per cent of the control group were 'at least on fair terms' with the coloured people with whom they worked and 55 per cent had established 'good or very good' working relations with them. Most of the firms found that relationships between coloured and white workers were frequently better than those between immigrant workers of different races. There were rivalries, for example, between West Indians from different islands and between West Indians and West Africans and between Indians and Pakistanis. The level of English of immigrant workers posed a problem but the enquiry showed that 'managements were not always aware of the difficulties which existed in their own work force.' (regarding language)

The survey concluded that there was a need for 'positive policies on race relations at every stage: recruitment, induction, promotion, training and dismissal' and it was stressed that language training was 'probably the most useful aid to integration that an employer can provide.'

A warning was given regarding the future since, unlike their parents, the new generation born in England, could not 'go home' if unhappy. England was their home and their dissatisfaction would find expression in it.

Section 2: Research concerned with the adjustment of immigrants to schools and colleges in Britain

Most research on the education of immigrants in Britain dates from the immediate post-war period but it was not until 1967 that there was a sound enough statistical basis to produce reliable results. It was in that year that the Department of Education and Science (D.E.S.) published the returns of a questionnaire, Form 7i, which they had circulated to schools in England and Wales as an addition to the usual annual return of pupils. This provided information on the numbers of immigrant pupils in schools, their country of origin and distribution among the Local Education Authorities. It also asked schools to place each pupil in one of four grades of language competence.

The number of surveys far exceeds the number of research projects and none of either has explored in depth the situation of students in Colleges of Further Education. Amya Sen[1] did include some Further Education College students in her wide study of the difficulties of 'adjustment - educational and social' of overseas students, but most of her sample came from Colleges of Education where 86 per cent of overseas students were willing to participate in her survey as against 39 per cent in Technical and Further Education Colleges. The sample also included Colleges of Technology, Universities and Hospitals; in all 346 institutions participated. For the purpose of her research she defined overseas students as those from 'non-European countries who are following various courses of study in Great Britain and whose mother tongue is not English.' She included West Indian students although in the introduction to her report she notes that -

> 'with the exception of those from the West Indies where English is indigenous these students are pursuing studies in this country in a medium which, at best, is a second language.'

This view that West Indian students did not share the linguistic difficulties of other immigrants was expressed in the D.E.S. report of 1963, English for Immigrants,[2] where it was stated that lack of adequate English - 'will not of course apply to West Indians.'

Amya Sen attempted to study the English language proficiency of this sample, obtain information on their background knowledge and use of English and -

> 'form an estimate of the relationship between the student's facility in English language and their academic experience.'

She also hoped to -

> 'Derive an overall picture of their academic and social experience in this country.'

To this end she administered to the sample a shortened version of an English Proficiency Test, devised by Alan Davies for overseas students,[2] together with a questionnaire covering various aspects of their social, linguistic and educational background. The follow-up study seemed, to her, to indicate that -

> 'the extent of the use of and familiarity with the English language has little relevance to their final performance.'

> 'Further, the results of these tests show that it (the proficiency test) has little predictive value except for certain courses and for two regional groups only.'

She did, however, add a rider to the effect that a modification of the test might have more predictive value.

There have been a number of research projects concerned with the social adjustment and acceptance of immigrant pupils in schools. Taysir Kawwa[3] studied the attitudes of some British children towards 'coloured people' and Cypriots. A sociometric test was given to 777 children, the majority British but including Cypriots and coloured. The aim of the test was to find out whether and to what extent children of different ethnic groups restricted their choice of friends to members of their own groups. Results indicated that members of the three ethnic groups preferred members of their own groups to members of the other groups. In an attempt to discover whether these groups' preferences were indicative of prejudice or not, the British children were given two attitude tests. One was an open ended questionnaire asking them about the way they felt towards 'coloured people'

and Cypriots. The second was an attitude scale on the Likert model concerning 'coloured people'. Kawwa concluded that London children 'were quite prejudiced against coloured and Cypriot people', whereas in Lowestoft where there were less coloured people the English children were less so.

Similarly I. Pushkin[4] found unfavourable attitudes towards 'Negroes' among children of five, the intensity of the attitudes increasing with age. Mothers in areas with 'harmonious race relations' were significantly less hostile towards Negroes than mothers in areas where there were tense relations between races. No differences of significance were found between the attitudes of mothers in areas with harmonious race relations and the attitudes of those in areas with no immigrants.

Results of a study by J. Rushton[5] indicated that white immigrant children were better integrated into the classroom than coloured ones, that the 'colour cleavage' occurred at about eleven years of age and that command of the English language was not related to social acceptability.

M. O. A. Durojaiya[6] found that the ethnic group of the children he studied was an important factor in choice of friends but not in choice of leader and that the tendency to choose friends exclusively from one's own ethnic group was strongest among English children but decreased with age.

S. Lederman[7] administered an 'Integration Factors Questionnaire' specifically designed for his experiment, to a sample of immigrant boys in two secondary schools. Results indicated that the factors most important to social acceptance were language, social standards, attainment and behaviour. Less important factors were the preferences of the main group, voluntary segregation, home conditions, colour, ability in sport and personality. Language was seen as the most important factor, particularly with regard to West Indians. Intelligibility was related to sociometric status and -

'A comparison of West Indians with non-West Indians in respect of intelligibility shows an overall advantage of high significance in favour of the latter.'

J. K. Bhatnagar[8] compared the 'socio-personal adjustment' of immigrant children in a North London school with a control group of English children. The experimental group comprised 174 West Indian and 76 Cypriot, the control group 100 English children. A specially constructed adjustment scale (measuring social acceptability, personal satisfaction, freedom from anxiety and objectivity of self concept), Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices, the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale and the New Junior Maudsley Personality Inventory were administered to the sample, together with the Cotswold Personality Inventory. School records and an interview supplied further information. The results indicated a wide gap in the level of adjustment by English and by Immigrant children and among the latter the Cypriots had a higher level than the West Indians. The I.Q's of the immigrant children, measured through a non-verbal test, were lower than those of the English children. Bhatnager suggests that this indicates the cultural disadvantage of the immigrant children as against lower 'intelligence' and shows the need for compensatory education for the immigrant group. Regarding written English, no significant differences were found between the attainment of the West Indian and Cypriot groups.

There have also been a number of research projects[9] concerned with the educational provision for immigrants at school in this country. The D.E.S. have sponsored a project, 'Educational Arrangements for Schools with Immigrant Pupils,' conducted by the N.F.E.R. under the direction of H. E. R. Townsend.

Its first report published in 1971,[10] examined the administrative provisions of local education authorities to meet the needs of schools with immigrant pupils, the second[11] dealt with the organisational measures in a sample of multiracial schools. Information for the first report was obtained

through postal questionnaire and visits to approximately 200 L.E.A. primary and secondary schools with substantial numbers of immigrant pupils. The questionnaire covered staffing, teachers' courses, reception arrangements and teaching English as a Second Language. In the conclusions the following observation was made -

> 'It seems to research workers that the prior need, before these materials...(produced by Schools Council Project, University of Birmingham)...can be fully effective, is the recognition on the part of L.E.A's and teachers that West Indian pupils present a special linguistic need which cannot be met most effectively by placing West Indian pupils in lower streams alongside retarded non-immigrants with different needs as is the practice at present in a number of schools....Until the language problem is tackled with something at least approaching the urgency with which many L.E.A's are tackling the question of Asian, Italian or Cypriot language, there is likely to be an increasingly high proportion of West Indian under-achievers both in school and in employment.'

The second report was also based on information obtained through a postal questionnaire, completed by the Heads of 230 Primary and Secondary schools. This sample represented less than 1 per cent of the schools in the country and the pupils only 1.4 per cent of the total pupils but the immigrant pupils formed 10 per cent of the total immigrants. Topics investigated included the teaching of English, assessment of ability and attainment, grouping, streaming, extended courses, staffing and home and school relations.

Conclusions on the teaching of English were that although multiracial schools see this as their major task, many end their special arrangements at too early a stage -

> 'When competence has been achieved at a conversational level but not at a sufficiently high level to enable future success in secondary education. The question of 'second stage' English following the initial achievement of literacy appears as yet to be imperfectly understood in either the need or the approach...Equally misunderstood perhaps are the need for, and the approach to teaching pupils of West Indian origin to use the English idioms, pronunciation and intonation as well as their Caribbean counterparts.'

Discussing the question of grouping and streaming it was observed that -

> 'West Indian pupils appear to have particular difficulties of their own. Entering English education with a better command of English than the vast majority of pupils from other countries they are yet more lowly placed in streamed systems and are working at lower levels in extended courses. There is scope for particular emphasis to be given in research and development to the educational needs of West Indian pupils.'

The Schools Council Working Paper 50,[12] published in July 1973, gave details of a preliminary report on the Schools Council project, 'Education for a Multiracial Society', carried out by the N.F.E.R. and directed by H. E. R. Townsend and E. M. Britten. The project, intended to run from April 1973 to December 1976, is investigating the school curriculum and is designed to produce materials for the education of all school pupils for life in a multiracial Britain.

The aim of the short survey from September 1972 to March 1973, on which the preliminary report was based, was to investigate teachers' views regarding syllabuses. The sample was composed of six types of school:-

50 non-multiracial primary schools	) in authorities with less than 300
50 non-multiracial secondary schools	) immigrant pupils in January 1971
50 non-multiracial primary schools	)
50 non-multiracial secondary schools	) in authorities with at least 500
150 multiracial primary schools	) immigrant pupils in January 1971
150 multiracial secondary schools	)

A 'multiracial' school was defined as one in which immigrant pupils formed at least 10 per cent of the school roll (as defined in D.E.S. Form 7i) and preferably more than 10 per cent. A 'non-multiracial' school was defined as one in which there were no immigrant pupils or where immigrant pupils amounted to less than 3 per cent of the school roll.

It was hoped to compare the replies of schools having large immigrant concentrations with schools having few or no immigrants in the same area and with schools in areas where hardly any immigrants lived. Three basic questions were asked -

'1. Do you consider that your syllabuses should have as one of their aims the preparation of pupils for life in a multiracial society?

2. Do the syllabuses at present in use in your school include any items intended to prepare pupils for the multiracial aspects of society?

3. Do you foresee any changes in your syllabus in order to make them more applicable to pupils in a multiracial society?'

Schools which replied 'yes' to questions 2 and 3 were asked to supply details. They were also asked to describe the kind of support which they would appreciate from curriculum developers. A further section of the questionnaire was directed at the multiracial schools in the sample and asked questions related to specific aspects of teaching multiracial classes. As replies to this from the different subject departments in the secondary schools might vary, copies of the questionnaire were sent to the various department heads within each school.

The response varied from 100 per cent for non-multiracial primary schools in non-immigrant areas to 65 per cent for multiracial secondary ones, the overall rate being 78 per cent which Townsend and Britten regard as suggesting that the schools felt the project to be worthwhile.

Responses indicated that although a high proportion of the sample felt that syllabuses should prepare pupils for life in a multiracial society, at least 20 per cent of them did not actually include relevant items in their syllabuses. Within the secondary schools the Religious Education, Humanities and English Departments, in that order, made the greatest effort to include such items. Many schools did not anticipate possible future changes in syllabuses. Of those Heads who claimed to include 'multiracial' items in their syllabuses at the time, 20 per cent did not envisage any further changes. A number saw no necessity to change syllabuses as they expected a trend towards fewer immigrant pupils. They saw education for a multiracial society as applying only to schools with a high proportion of immigrants.

In response to the questions on the types of assistance required from curriculum developers, most schools requested 'teachers' guides and source books.' Others requested in-service courses, pupils' books, films, T.V. lessons, radio lessons and visiting speakers.

Townsend and Britten conclude from the evidence that -

> 'there appears to be a considerable majority of head teachers in all types of school, whether multiracial or not, and whether in immigrant areas or not, and of heads of department in multiracial secondary schools, who consider that one of their aims should be to prepare pupils for life in a multi-racial society.'

Section 3: Research concerned with the linguistic needs and difficulties of immigrants

Investigations into the teaching of English to immigrants have concentrated on primary and secondary schools. Following a proposal in 1964 by June Derrick, then a lecturer in the Department of English, University of Leeds, that a national centre should be established to provide practical help for schools with large numbers of immigrant pupils, the Schools Council sponsored a feasibility study under her direction. Its terms of reference were to investigate the size of the immigrant school population, the nature of the pedagogical problem and the degree to which L.E.A's were aware of it.

As a result of June Derrick's report a three-year development project was set up in September 1966 in the Institute of Education, University of Leeds, to devise teaching materials for those pupils of Asian and Southern European parentage, whose English was classed as inadequate. In her report on the project Mrs. Stoker[1] criticised the idea that English speaking and non-English speaking children should progress 'together along the same linguistic path without any special effort on the part of the teacher.' It was recognised that many West Indian children who were not technically classed as 'immigrants' by the D.E.S. (as their parents had been in the U.K. for more than ten years), might also share the linguistic and social

difficulties of those who were officially called 'immigrants'. It was also felt that a child should be assessed according to his 'linguistic and cultural' needs rather than the number of years his parents had lived in the U.K.

As a result of the survey, an introductory two-term language course for non-English speaking children aged from 8 to 13 was published in 1969.[2] E. M. Rudd[3] observes that the course is not entirely based on linguistic considerations but is also a 'general orientation and acculturalization programme.'

A similar project concerned with the educational needs of 7-9-year-old West Indian immigrants was begun at Birmingham University in 1967, directed by Mr. James Wight. An initial report was published in 1970.[4] The project team concluded that there was interference from the West Indian dialects in the areas of writing, spelling, oral comprehension, reading, spoken intelligibility; that West Indian children differed from English children from similar urban backgrounds in general oral fluency and skill at pronunciation; that there was no difference between English and West Indian children from similar urban backgrounds as regards concept formation (although here it was observed that some of the test results were inconclusive), and that the Bristol Social Adjustment Guide results indicated a higher incidence of certain types of classroom behaviour, for example, withdrawal, restlessness, anxiety, on the part of the West Indian children. The report recommended that teaching materials should be devised to improve the 'oral fluency and general communication skills and confidence of the children, focusing also on intellectual tasks that are fundamental to successful communication at school.'

These materials have been designed and are currently available for use in primary schools.[5] Known as 'Concept 7-9' they comprise four units which aim at developing the child's listening, speaking and conceptualizing

skills. The fourth unit, 'The Dialect Kit', concentrates on the structures and lexis of Standard British English which differ from West Indian dialects.

The Schools Council Working Paper 13, 1967, had observed that before effective language teaching programmes could be devised for immigrant children, an analysis should be made of the language used in the classroom by teachers and by English speaking pupils. The Child Language Survey, supported by the Schools Council Modern Language Project and by York University Committee for Research and Development in Modern Languages has analysed the language patterns of children from 8 to 12 years and from 13 to 15 years and published two reports.[6]

E. Lucas[7] conducted an investigation into the playground behaviour of infant children, which was partly concerned with language use. Evidence was not found to support the view held by some people that immigrant children would 'pick up' English in the playground. Results indicated that immigrant and indigenous children were more likely to play together in schools with a low proportion of immigrants; and that where immigrant children experienced communication failure, withdrawal behaviour followed. Lucas accordingly recommended that when they first entered school they should be given special language teaching, not only to aid them academically but to enable them to form 'equal' relationships with native speakers of English.

The Programme Development Unit (1973) of the Schools Council Compensatory Education Project has produced language learning materials aimed primarily at 'disadvantaged' children and a teacher's handbook 'Language Development in the Infant School.' The materials are intended both for children who are mother tongue speakers of English and for those who speak English as a second language.

Sponsored by the D.E.S. through the N.F.E.R., Mrs. C. Burstall, C. Gipp and E. Lun have completed work on the production and validation of a battery of proficiency tests in English for immigrant children. The project was begun

in 1970 and the tests, now available, are designed to measure the listening, speaking, reading and writing levels of children of primary school age.

Following on from this project, Dr. Ray Sumner conducted research into the proficiency in English of immigrant pupils with differing educational experience. The aim was to compare the English proficiency of immigrant children born abroad, and of those born in this country of immigrant parents, with that of native English children, in an attempt to relate English proficiency to characteristic features of the children's background and history of learning. The test battery designed by Mrs. C. Burstall and associates[8] was administered to a nation-wide sample of immigrant and native children of junior school age during the Easter term 1973.

In 1969, following a report by the Select Committee on Race Relations and Immigration[9] which suggested that due to the difficulties encountered in the assessment of educational potential, immigrant pupils could be placed wrongly in schools, the D.E.S. commissioned a five-week pilot survey in ten Local Education Authorities of 'current practice and opinion concerning the educational assessment of pupils from overseas.'[10] Conclusions reached were that some of the assessment techniques currently in use in schools were 'based on an inadequate and at times out-of-date conceptual framework.' It was therefore recommended that means be developed whereby the 'ordinary' class teacher could assess the progress made by immigrant pupils in acquiring English as a second language. It was not felt that priority should be given to developing standardised 'culture-fair' group tests of intelligence. There was little justification for developing tests for immigrants separately from other children with 'social, cultural and linguistic disabilities.'

The D.E.S. have also undertaken a survey into the action taken by itself, the L.E.A's and educational institutions to provide suitable courses for pupils and students 'from overseas',[11] and in 1969-70 a further survey was conducted by a group of H.M.I's to determine their progress in secondary education.[12]

Both surveys stressed the continuing need for special educational provision in the form of English language programmes.

The Select Committee on Race Relations and Immigration published in July 1973 a report on education, Chapter 3 of which deals with the teaching of English based on a survey made of the English teaching provided for immigrant pupils in schools in Bristol, the London Boroughs of Haringey, Brent and Ealing, Leicester, Liverpool and Bolton. Unlike the views expressed in the D.E.S. report of 1963[13] this report recognises that West Indian children may be suffering from as great linguistic problems as children from Asia or Cyprus. It states -

> 'The point often brought out in our evidence that West Indian children may have a hidden, only partly recognised, handicap in their use of English is important...evidence to us confirms the impression we got in Jamaica and Trinidad that, although superficial conversation is easy and fluent, differences of grammar, words and intonation make it harder for a West Indian child than an English one to communicate with his teachers, to pass exams. in this country or to present himself to a prospective employer.'

These observations are repeated in the committee's 1974 report on education[14] which recommended that -

> 'Local education authorities should be in no doubt that facility in English is of crucial importance, not merely at the first stage of simple communication, but to a standard which will enable immigrant children to compete on equal terms with their contemporaries.' (recommendation 1 p.5)

> 'Local education authorities to whom it is applicable should consider how best to approach, with tact and discretion, the convincing of West Indian parents that some of their children may need special English teaching, without implying that their children, because they lack standard English, are basically inferior.' (recommendation 3 p.6)

> 'The D.E.S. should make a close study of the problem of shortage of teachers able to teach English as a second language and of people to train them.' (recommendation 12 p.9)

In the evidence presented to the Committee of Enquiry into Reading and the use of English in 1973, the Community Relations Commission refer to the difficulties experienced by West Indian school children and note that -

> 'Some of the low performance of West Indian children may be attributed to a great extent to factors which retard many native English children of the same socio-economic background. Yet there are also important differences which need to be understood if any effective strategy is to be adopted to deal with this problem. One important difference is that West Indians not only often suffer from the same linguistic handicaps as do indigenous deprived children but they also have specific dialect differences which hamper them in trying to come to terms with standard English.'

One of the Community Relations Commission's recommendations is that language learning materials should be produced for secondary schools to supplement those produced by the Schools Council for primary ones.[5] This recommendation is repeated in a more recent paper, The Educational Needs of Children from Minority Groups.[15]

In 1972, M. B. Longdon[16] explored the question - 'Should Jamaican children in London schools be taught English as a Second Language?' observing that -

> 'the linguistic problems of Jamaican children in London schools are usually overlooked completely, or at best, lightly dismissed.'

After discussing the theoretical aspects of the question, she proceeds to a small-scale experimental investigation into the linguistic problems of a group of six Jamaican children aged six years and seven months, to see if they had any difficulty in learning the phonology, grammar and vocabulary of English. The spoken English of this experimental group, together with that of an English control group (all working class and matched in age, sex, socio-economic status and intelligence as measured on the Goodenough Draw-a-man test), was recorded and the vocabulary, grammar and phonology analysed. The Birmingham word list was used to estimate the size of vocabulary and Watt's Language Scale Test to assess the quality of syntax. Results indicated that the English child had a larger estimated vocabulary, used a greater number of all parts of speech and had fewer difficulties with the production and recognition of phonemes of English than the West Indian group. Miss Longdon concluded that -

'Jamaican children in London schools have enough difficulty in learning Standard English to raise the question whether they should be taught English as a Second Language.'

In 1963,[17] Dennis R. Craig studied the written English of 608 fourteen year old Jamaican and English children attending four schools, two in Jamaica and two in England. In each country one of the pair of schools chosen was considered to be 'more favoured socially' than the other, and to have better buildings, material resources, etc. The results indicated that in each country pupils from the schools which were more favoured socially were more fluent in language. In this study the characteristics considered to be associated with ability were the length of composition in a given time; the proportions of multiple, complex and paratactic sentences and their clause content, and the errors and peculiarities which did not conform with the accepted language of educated people in both countries. The more favoured English group appeared to be more able than the less favoured one only in length of composition and in having the same or slightly more errors per 1,000 words. The two Jamaican groups were more alike than the two English ones and in length of composition both English groups were superior to both Jamaican ones. As a result Dennis Craig observed that the fact that the English samples as a whole showed greater ability and more complex language use than did the Jamaican samples was due mainly to the results of the more favoured English group, and that the sample did not statistically represent the full range of conditions in Jamaica and England. The conclusions reached could therefore only apply to the actual groups studied. Further research would be needed to test whether the conclusions were applicable to other situations.

There have been a number of studies of Jamaican Creole. F. G. Cassidy in 'Jamaica Talk' listed the lexis and gave a short account of the structures. In 'Jamaican Creole Syntax,' B. L. Bailey used a transformational model to analyse the structures and F. G. Cassidy and R. B. Le Page have produced

a 'Dictionary of Jamaican Children.' R. B. Le Page has, in addition, written a number of articles on Jamaican Creole.[18]

In 1959[19] S. F. W. Fagan analysed samples of composition written by 180 11 to 15-year-old pupils in Kingston Senior School, Jamaica. 20 of the subjects were taking a special course leading to Cambridge School Certificate and of the remaining 160, 40 were in each year of a four-year elementary school course. Detailed structural analysis convinced Fagan that the majority of the subjects were 'inadequately acquainted with the patterns of expression and the grammatical conventions of accepted English.' He suspected that 'on reaching the leaving age of 15, a good many of them will not have achieved functional literacy.' The older the subject the more elaborate was the sentence construction used and more numerous became the structural errors and faulty usages. Fagan commented that these errors 'suggest strong dialectical influences' to which pupils are continually exposed, and recommended careful and constructive consideration of the problem of effectively dealing with the dialect, in any methods aiming at 'better' English in Jamaica.

In 1964 a Conference was held on 'Language Teaching, Linguistics and the teaching of English in a Multiracial Society', at the University of the West Indies, having as its terms of reference the study of past, current and future research in the field. The work of Dennis R. Craig[17] was cited together with that of D. R. B. Grant and Michael Alleyne. The aims of D. R. B. Grant's study[20] were to determine the 'relative frequency and persistency of language and spelling errors throughout the five years of elementary school,' and to recommend any further research in this field with a view to improving the quality of written English. To this end the schemes of work and the textbooks in use in 315 schools were analysed; the time allocated to language teaching was summarised and the frequency and persistence of language and spelling errors in the 43,093 scripts written by pupils in the first five years of elementary school tabulated. Grant

concluded that further research was required to ascertain the effects of home background and socio-economic status on sentence structure and word order, and to determine whether -

> 'The persistent sub-standard written English of elementary school pupils is a result of the influence of Jamaicanism or of inappropriate teaching methods.'

H. M. McD. Alleyne[21] administered a battery of tests to two groups of children, one bilingual and one monoglot, matched on age, sex and socio-economic status. The experimental bilingual group consisted of 102 children from eight schools in East, North and West London. Their mother tongues were Greek, Turkish, Polish, Italian, Serbo-Croat, French, Spanish and Indian languages and a questionnaire, an adaptation of the Language Schedule of Moses Hoffman,[22] was used in an attempt to measure objectively their bilingualism. West Indian children were not included in the sample for the following reasons -

> 'From discussions with teachers and Heads it was gathered that West Indian children do not suffer from any significant linguistic handicap in schools, except perhaps their first few months after arrival...Enquiries revealed that the school situation was relatively free of any problems that might be due to language or culture differences, in the case of West Indians.'

The tests administered to the sample were the N.F.E.R. Primary Verbal Test 1, Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices 1938, and a battery of English and Arithmetic attainment tests compiled by L. C. D. Kemp. Results indicated that the monoglots were 'consistently superior' to the bilinguals on all four tests, the least significant difference being performance in the non-verbal intelligence test, and the largest significant difference performance in the verbal test.

D. M. Fletcher[23] investigated whether bilingual children who had a good syntactic control of language might use it semantically in a way different from monoglot children. He administered word association and 'semantic differential' tests to two groups of children, one bilingual and one monoglot,

his hypothesis being that the monoglots would 'show the higher rate of paradigmatic response in the word association, and the more flexible use of language in concept/Scale interaction in the semantic differential.' As his results supported his hypothesis Fletcher concluded that 'though both groups seem to use the same language at the level of surface structure, there is within the common language a bi-codal situation.'

A number of projects in the United States have concerned themselves with the education of 'disadvantaged' children, many of whom are Negro and much of the attention has centred on language problems. In a review of research in the United States concerned with the education of 'coloured immigrant children'[24] R. J. Goldman and Francine M. Taylor cite the work of -

1. IRWIN (1960) and PRINGLE, KELLMER, M. L. and TANNER, M. (1958)[25] who found that 'verbal behaviour is more sensitive to interactive influences in the environment than are other classes of behaviour.'

2. JOHN, V. (1963)[26] who found that 'slum children' rarely have the 'opportunities for learning to categorise and integrate.'

3. JOHN, V. and GOLDSTEIN, L. (1964)[27] who observed that the 'lower class' child as against the middle class child learned more from what he heard than from participating in'meaningful conversational dialogues' with adults.

4. DEUTSCH, M. (1964)[28] who, from a study of the relationships between race, socio-economic status, school grade and language variables found that children from low socio-economic groups performed poorly as regards abstraction and verbalization.

5. BROWN, B. and DEUTSCH, M. (1965)[29] using the same sample to study the effect of race, school experience, and father's presence in the home on children in a low social economic group, found that those variables were related to 'levels of cognitive development' and I.Q. scores.

F. R. Williams[30] has described the difference/deficit controversy about the language of 'disadvantaged children.' The deficit argument is that the language of 'disadvantaged' children is less 'developed' than that of middle class children. Some of the exponents of this view, according to Williams, cite Basil Bernstein's theories regarding 'restricted' and 'elaborated' codes[31] and apply them to their analysis of the language of 'poverty' in the States.

There have been various compensatory education programmes[32] based on the deficit theory which assume that as the 'poverty' child's language is restricted, partly because of his home background, a pre-school intensive language arts programme should help him to 'catch up.' Bereiter and Engelmann have described the objectives and course content of one of these programmes.[33]

In contrast the 'difference' theory argues that the syntax and lexis of the 'disadvantaged' child's language is as consistent as that of the middle class child and equally effective in communication. Stewart, Labov, Shuy and Baratz[34] have all argued that the American Negro dialect is not a 'substandard' form of English but rather a form of 'non-standard' English with its own syntactical rules. Baratz[35] maintains that the distribution of phonemes in Negro Non-Standard English differs from standard English and criticises the conclusions reached by Cynthia Deutsch (1964)[36] who found that disadvantaged black children did not 'discriminate' sounds as well as white children from middle class environments. Baratz pointed out that many of Deutsch's stimuli, though different for a speaker of standard English (for example, pin - pen), sound similar to a Negro Non-Standard speaker, and lists some of the ways in which Negro Non-Standard syntax deviates.[37]

To support the theory that speakers of Negro Non-Standard English have to contend with interference from their dialect, Baratz conducted an experiment with a sample of third and fifth graders in two Washington D.C. schools. One school, inner city, had a high percentage of Negro children, the other had only white lower middle class children. Thirty sentences, fifteen in standard English and fifteen in Negro Non-Standard were presented on tape to the children who were asked to repeat each sentence. The results were as he had anticipated. The white children found it easier to repeat the standard English sentences and the Negroes

the non-standard. Baratz interpreted the results as evidence that Negro children do not suffer from a language deficit but have difficulty in code switching when the second code, the standard, is not so well known as the first, Negro Non-Standard.

Doris R. Entwisle[38] in 1966 and 1968 investigated word associations of black and white elementary school children and showed that 'slum' children appeared to be more advanced linguistically than 'suburban' children as measured by the amount of paradigmatic responses (that is, responses in a structural form which matches the stimulus word). White first grade 'slum' children of average measured I.Q. gave similar amounts of paradigmatic responses as gifted (I.Q. 130 and above) 'suburban' children. 'Inner City' black first graders of average I.Q. gave fewer paradigmatic responses than their white 'inner city' counterparts but more than white suburban first graders of average I.Q. However, although at first grade the 'inner city' children were more advanced, by the third grade the suburban children had surpassed them, both black and white. Entwisle comments that the temporary advance and then decline in linguistic development appeared to be a feature of children in 'poverty' environments and advances the theory that 'slum' children might have unlimited access to television in their pre-school years whereas the middle class parents might restrict their children's viewing. This exposure to spoken discourse (from television) might account for the advanced linguistic behaviour of the 'slum' child on admission to school.

He also found that there was a significant difference between the black and white children in the number of different responses given to the same stimulus. The increased variability of response was most evident at first grade level and covered all structural forms. Entwisle suggests that low level of communality might be taken as evidence of a differently structured semantic system and not as an indicator of 'less mature' individuals.

Marvin D. Lofflin[39] examined the syntax of the language of Negro children in Washington D.C. and, like Labov, Baratz, prefers to refer to it as 'Non-Standard Negro English' and to regard it as a deviation from the standard rather than as a 'bad' or 'corrupt' version of it. He states that a fuller description of Negro Non-Standard English should indicate a grammatical system which should be treated as a foreign language, having structures which interfere with the speaker's performance in standard English.

Section 4: Research into the intelligence, attainment and educational testing and measurement of Immigrants

Current concern over the assessment of immigrant pupils' 'intelligence' and educational potential has created an awareness that intelligence and attainment tests standardised for indigenous populations are probably unreliable instruments for testing non-indigenous, immigrant groups who do not speak standard English as a mother tongue and have lived part of their lives in a different cultural and social environment. Where the immigrants are black further questions have been posed regarding the feasibility of 'measuring' their 'intelligence' and comparing it with that of indigenous groups.

Central to this issue is the clash between those theories of intelligence often referred to as environmentalist, geneticist and interactionist and the 'nature/nurture' controversy which has been recently revitalised through Arthur Jensen's article in the Harvard Educational Review in 1969[1] and the debate that followed. H. J. Eysenck[2] writing in support of Jensen's theory that measured differences between the mean I.Q. of Negro and white samples might be partly due to a racially determined genetic factor, cites the work of A. M. Shuey[3] who had amassed the evidence from almost 400 investigations involving a combined sample of about 80,000 Negro children. Shuey concludes that -

> 'Negro children come out with an I.Q. of 84; this mean is not affected by testing (individual or group; verbal or non-verbal tests). Southern coloured children have a mean I.Q. of 80, Northern of 88.'

This indicates a difference of approximately 15 I.Q. points between Negro and white American samples. Anticipating opposition on the grounds that there were also environmental differences between Negro and white subjects, Shuey stated that when comparisons are restricted to black and white subjects from the same or similar neighbourhoods and have parents of 'matched socio-economic status' -

> 'the difference between white and black children is reduced to between 8 and 13 points with an approximate mean difference of 11 points, rather than the overall difference of 15 points.'

Shuey argued that -

> 'the size of this remaining difference does not warrant our assuming that racial differences in I.Q. would be eradicated with further steps toward equality of opportunity.'

On the theory that the race of the tester may influence performance in intelligence tests, particularly when a white examiner administers a test to black children, Shuey commented -

> 'there seems to be no evidence that the race of the examiner really affected the testing rapport.'

Eysenck also criticises the environmental hypothesis -

> 'Negro children are more inferior on non-cultural (culture fair) than on cultural items and on a performance test. Environmentalists would have predicted the opposite.'

He argues against the idea that Negro children may perform less well than white children through lack of motivation, although he admits that research in that area is 'inadequate'.

Quoting some of the statistics on educational provision in the United States referred to by Jensen, Eysenck points to much misunderstanding in Britain and the U.S.A. about the 'actual quality of the education offered to Negro children, as compared with white children' and observes that, in America, 'I.Q. differences between whites and blacks are as large as ever

in spite of the equalization of educational facilities.' He cites Shuey's comments concerning investigations (unspecified by Eysenck) into black and white college and University students which Shuey claims refute the argument that a Negro college student's performance is affected by the cumulative effects of restricted environment in the past.

Eysenck holds that most critics have not faulted the actual words used by Jensen in his article[1] but have misunderstood his theories. He cites Jensen's main conclusion on Negro-white differences in I.Q.[4] -

> 'all we are left with are various lines of evidence, not one of which is definitive alone, but which, viewed altogether, make it a not unreasonable hypothesis that genetic factors are strongly implicated in the average negro-white intelligence difference. The preponderance of evidence is, in my opinion, less consistent with a strictly environmental hypothesis than with a genetic hypothesis which, of course, does not exclude the influence of environment or its interaction with genetic factors.'

This conclusion Eysenck regards as an argument for an interactionist as against a strictly genetic or environmentalist theory.

There have been many criticisms of Jensen's article[1] and of Eysenck's writings in support of it. Haynes (1970)[5], Rex (1971)[6], Mason (1971)[7] and Vernon (1971)[8] all object to Eysenck's selective use of evidence and his presumption that the black and white samples in the investigations he cites share similar or identical environmental backgrounds. John Rex[6] notes with surprise that Eysenck asks that those who oppose him should offer 'experimental' evidence and comments that this would require subjecting a group of Negroes to white experience over several hundreds of years or a group of whites to Negro experience.

> 'The empirical study which holds constant, size of income, type of neighbourhood and length of schooling in the U.S. of the present day, therefore, should in theory be supplemented for an experiment in which the peoples of Africa conquer, capture and enslave some millions of European and American whites under conditions in which a very large proportion of the white population dies and in which the white culture is systematically destroyed, and in which finally a group of emancipated whites living in 'good neighbourhoods' are then compared to their Negro masters.'

W. F. Bodmer[9] writing as a biologist, on the 'genetic background' to the race/I.Q. controversy, quotes Jensen's statement that because the gene pools of whites and blacks are known to differ and -

> 'these genetic differences are manifested in virtually every anatomical, physiological and biochemical comparison one can make between representative samples of identifiable racial groups...there is no reason to suppose that the brain should be exempt from this generalization.'

Bodmer counters by stating that -

> 'there is no <u>a priori</u> reason why genes affecting I.Q., which differ in the gene pools of blacks and whites, should be such that on the average whites have significantly more genes increasing I.Q. than blacks do. On the contrary, one should expect, assuming no tendency for high I.Q. genes to accumulate by selection in one race or the other, that the more polymorphic genes there are that affect I.Q. and that differ in frequency in blacks and whites, the less likely it is that there is an average genetic difference in I.Q. between the races.'

He adds -

> 'It is difficult to see...how the status of blacks and whites can be compared. The very existence of a racial stratification correlated with a relatively deprived socio-economic deprivation makes this comparison suspect.'

Stephen Rose[10] also writing as a biologist, discusses the function of the brain and points out that although one should not simplify a highly complex situation, one way of describing intelligence could be as the number of synaptic connections between the neurons in the brain. This makes the talk of inherited genes absurd.

> 'To talk of 'high I.Q.' genes, or to try to disentangle the genetic programme from the environment in which it is expressed is both disingenuous and misleading.'

Martin D. Jenkins[11] argues that there is 'literally no upper limit to the intellectual ability of Negroes.' He analysed investigations concerning the intelligence test performance of Negro children, using different tests in varying conditions, and found 'at least' 16 published studies that gave an account of Negro children with I.Q's above 130, 12 of them above 140. In Northern and border state cities he found case records of

18 Negro children with measured I.Q. above 160 on the Stanford Binet test of whom 7 had I.Q's above 170, 4 above 180 and 1 at 200. His conclusion was that 'race-per-se' (at least as it is represented by the American Negro) is not a limiting factor in psychometric intelligence.

Also criticising Jensen, William F. Brazziel[12] refers to 'Jensen's error' in relying on the Coleman Report for data regarding 'black inferiority'. Brazziel cites an article by Bowles and Levin in the Winter 1968 issue of the Journal of Human Resources which specifies some 'weaknesses' of this report, namely the sampling procedures used, the lack of co-operation by the schools, failure to match black and white samples for curriculum, over-reliance on the administrators' assertion that black and white educational facilities were 'separate but equal' and crudeness of statistical measures.

Jensen had called 'compensatory education' a failure but Brazziel refers to data from a Virginia State Programme, 'Title 1' which showed 'an average overgain in achievement of more than half a year per pupil as a result of compensatory education.' Brazziel also points out that Jensen did not pay attention to the 'fact that white examiners in a black classroom are, in many cases, getting an invalid test performance.' Eysenck had argued against this claim[2] but there have been several investigations concerned with the effect of a white tester on the performance of black children on intelligence tests. Green, Hofman and Morgan[13] refer to an investigation by Pasamanick and Knoblank[14] who found that Negro children at age two (in their third I.Q. test session), showed a sudden decline in verbal responsiveness when the black examiner was exchanged for a white one. Katz, Robinson, Epps and Waly[15] describe an experiment by Katz, Roberts and Robinson[16] in 1963. It was found that when 'digit-symbol' substitution was presented as a test of eye-hand co-ordination, Negro subjects scored higher with a white administrator than they had with

a black. However, when the same task was presented as an intelligence test, performance with the white tester was impaired but there was a slight improvement with a Negro one.

Katz et al cite various studies[16] which suggest that the blocking of aggressive impulses is 'detrimental to intellectual efficiency.' They themselves conducted an investigation to test the hypothesis that -

> 'Emotional conflict involving the need to control hostility may have a disruptive influence on the performance of Negro students when their intelligence is evaluated by a white person.'

'Hostile expression' was measured by a questionnaire which was disguised as a concept formation test. This was based on a test devised by Ehrlich in 1961. The subjects were told to eliminate a word from a group of four according to the 'odd man out' principle. For example, in 'homerun, hit, bash, strike,' if one eliminates 'bash' the concept is non-aggressive; if one eliminates 'homerun', it is aggressive. There were also neutral items.

The sample comprised 72 male students, aged 13 to 18 years, at a Negro high school and a junior high school in Nashville, who had volunteered in response to an offer of one dollar. Testing was carried out on two successive days. On the first the 'hostility scale' questionnaire was administered by the assistant principal of the school who said that it was to help evaluate a proposed new method for teaching vocabulary. On the second the sample was divided into four equal groups which were tested by either a white or Negro stranger who gave instructions either that the task was an intelligence test or that it was a research instrument. After the instructions the hostility-scale was readministered. 'Change scores' were obtained by subtracting each subject's scores on pre-test from scores on post-test. When the test was described as research the group means showed that the change scores of subjects who had a white administrator were only slightly different from those of the group who had a black administrator. But when

the test was described as an intelligence measure, the group with the white tester expressed less hostility than previously, while the subjects with the black tester showed an increase in hostility. The difference between the groups was significant at the .01 level.

Peter Watson[17] refers to a further investigation by Katz where Negroes were given a task to perform either in the presence of two whites or two blacks, one of whom posed as another testee. Controlled stress was added by threats of mild or severe electric shock. It was found that mild stress plus white tester improved performance but severe stress plus white tester impaired it.

Various research projects have investigated the effects of environmental factors on intelligence test performance. In 1963, C. K. Saint[18] found that the I.Q. of Punjabi speaking children in Smethwick was 15 points below the mean and their attainment was very poor. Their I.Q., however, showed a positive correlation with length of residence in the U.K.

V. P. Houghton[19] administered the Terman-Merril Form L-M test to 71 matched pairs of English and West Indian children, mostly Jamaican, in 11 infant schools. The aim was to investigate possible differences between the scores of West Indian immigrant infants during their first term at school and a carefully matched group of English children. The pairs were matched on age, length of schooling, sex, nursery school experience and date of birth. Houghton observed that there were wide differences of accent, intonation and vocabulary among children in both the West Indian and English groups. Some of the West Indian children were difficult to understand.

> 'It seems clear, then, that linguistic difficulties will be an important factor in the educational development of the West Indian child.'

In consideration of this Houghton hoped at a later date to analyse the scores of the two groups on the Picture Vocabulary Sub Test and the General Vocabu-

lary Sub Test of the Terman-Merril Form L-M. The results of the investigation showed a close similarity between the scores of the two groups: the mean score of the Jamaican group was 90.09 and of the English group 92.00, a difference that was not statistically significant at the 5 per cent level and there was no significant difference between the variances of the two groups. Houghton felt that, should these results be confirmed by other investigations, one could regard the scores of both groups as depressed and that the cause of this could be best explained in terms of deprivation, whether social, linguistic, maternal, paternal or general environmental.

Klineberg[20] (1963) stated that the results of all research concerned with assessing the ability of subjects from different races and cultures gave no scientific evidence of innate ethnic differences in intelligence. The observed differences in the test results could be explained by social and educational factors.

In 1952, Biesheuvel[21] tested two groups of 125 South African children, black and white, using Porteus Maze, Koh's Blocks, Cube construction, Alexander's Passalong Test and a Match test, constructed especially for the investigation. Both English and Afrikaans were used as language media. The main findings were that there were no significant differences between the means on the Alexander Passalong Test, the Porteus Maze and Match tests. In the Koh's Blocks and Cube construction tests, the African mean was significantly lower than the European mean. Biesheuvel concluded that although the Africans appeared to be inferior in the ability to manipulate spatial relations particularly in three dimensions, the difference was likely to be due to the different environmental and home stimulation of the two groups. In 1949 he had stated -

> 'it does not follow that tests which are valid measures in a European group are equally valid in groups with a different cultural background.'

Goldman and Taylor in 1966 reviewed[22] the studies of the education of 'coloured immigrant' children in Britain and of the educational problems

of children of 'coloured' and ethnic migrant groups in America. They show that where cultural differences, linguistic handicaps and differences in the environment are considerable, intelligence test scores tend to be lower among children in non-technical societies than among those brought up in a west European or North American culture which is industrial. Regarding the coloured and migrant children in America, they conclude from research data that the educational problems are caused by a 'complex of socio-economic factors.' They describe the culturally deprived child as having less practice and encouragement in conversation which impairs their cognitive development and renders it inadequate for conceptualisation, especially in abstract categories. Their auditory and visual discrimination is weak and their performance on intelligence and scholastic tests tends to deteriorate as they grow older due to inadequate motivation and 'cultural experience.' In addition they 'suffer from an inadequate self-image.' This, Goldman and Taylor feel, is particularly true for Negro boys who experience prejudice and may have no father figure with which to identify. (This description is reminiscent of Basil Bernstein's theories and of the 'deficit' argument regarding the language of disadvantaged children already discussed in Section 3 of this chapter.)

Regarding the effect of a changed environment, Long[24] (1934) and Klineberg[25] (1935) found that Southern Negro children who migrated to North America scored higher on the intelligence tests than they had while in the South. A close positive relationship was found between test scores and length of residence. The longer they were in the new environment, the higher their I.Q. On average there was found to be a difference of about 7 points in the measured I.Q. of Negro children in North and South America.

Little et al[26] in 1968 conducted an investigation in London to examine the attainment of eleven year old immigrant pupils and so to find out the problems of schools with more than a third immigrant pupil enrolment. The

sample comprised about 1,000 immigrant children in 52 Inner London primary schools, 56 per cent of whom were West Indian, 23 per cent Cypriot, 7 per cent Indian and Pakistan, plus a small percentage of 'other' immigrants. Pupils due for transfer to secondary education in the I.L.E.A. were assessed by their teachers for English, Mathematics and Verbal Reasoning, and placed in one of seven 'profile' groups. Little et al found that the distribution of immigrant pupils among the groups was very different from that of the indigenous pupils. Roughly half of the Authority's total pupils were placed in the 'below average performance' groups (7, 6, 5 and lower 4); four-fifths of the immigrant children were in those groups (76 per cent of them for English; 82 per cent for Verbal Reasoning; 79 per cent for Mathematics). Their conclusion was that there was a 'consistent and marked improvement in immigrant performance with increasing length of English education.'

Herman G. Canady[27] asserts that in early comparative studies of Negro and white intelligence in the United States Negroes have scored lower because of such factors as the lower socio-economic level of their homes, schools and community influences.

Later studies, for example by Peterson,[28] attempted to compensate for 'conditions of inferiority of opportunity' of Negroes by selecting them from social areas believed to be superior to those from which his white subjects came. Results, however, still showed a definite superiority on the part of the whites.

Canady maintains that even with the same backgrounds the results could not be generalised but would apply only to the particular samples studied. He asserts, as does Jenkins,[11] that in any case, environment includes such factors as the 'Negro's past history of slavery and present minority status.' He also points to the limitations of scales designed to measure home environment, social status and socio-economic level when applied to Negro groups and refers to various investigations.[29] The scales are mainly concerned

with material possessions and he argues that Negro and white cultures in the United States have different attitudes towards this. Again, because the hierarchy of occupations is different for Negroes and whites in the United States[30] a different occupation may represent a different socio-economic level in the two groups. He concludes that 'low average scores made by Negroes on intelligence tests standardised chiefly on Northern whites, may represent a lack of adjustment to the latter's culture.'

P. E. Vernon[31] carried out an investigation in Jamaica in 1963. A battery of tests were given to 50 10½ to 11 years old boys, 10 from each of five types of school - 'better class urban', 'poorer class urban', 'country market town', 'sugar estate' and 'isolated rural small-holding.' The battery contained five main categories - 'verbal and educational', 'induction', 'conceptual development', 'creativity tests', and 'perceptual and spatial tests.'

Vernon warns that the sample was not strictly representative of the wider population because the large urban schools were over-represented. The bias was not too great, however, as the median score on Reid's English Test was 81 as against the estimated population median of 78. In almost all the tests the order of means was the same as that in which the schools were listed; that is, the 'better class urban' school down to the 'isolated rural small-holding.' Subjects from rural schools performed less well on all tests and Vernon points to their greater language difficulties and poorer attendance. One finding was that the 'verbal-educational' component was strong in all the written tests and also affected several perceptual ones. Another was that -

> 'The score distributions for English and Arithmetic indicate that, despite the intensive drilling at school, nearly one third of Jamaican boys at eleven years are still virtually innumerate and illiterate.'

He concluded that -

> 'The implication would seem to be that, when most homes provide little or no stimulation or relevant experiences, such abilities can hardly develop without some schooling, albeit poor schooling.'

In his general conclusions to his publication, 'Intelligence and Cultural Environment'[31] he asserts that -

> 'When environmental differences are more extreme, as between ethnic groups, their effects predominate. This does not mean that there are no innate racial differences in abilities, but they are probably small and we have no means of proving them.'

A number of investigations have been particularly concerned with the effect of linguistic competence and environment on intelligence test performance. In 1967 J. F. Payne[32] administered a battery of verbal and non-verbal tests to seven and eight year old West Indian and English children and their scores indicated significant differences in performance. The tests used were Raven's Coloured Progressive Matrices, Crighton Vocabulary Scale and Burt's (re-arranged) Word Reading Test. When, however, the children were matched for verbal ability, as measured by a vocabulary test, there was no difference between the groups on a test of concept formation.

A recent research project by Judith M. Haynes[33] was concerned with the construction of tests of learning ability to 'assess the abilities of children with all degrees of linguistic and cultural handicap.' Once devised, the experimental test battery was administered individually to a sample of 125 Indian and 40 English children in their first year at Junior School. The following intelligence and attainment tests were also individually given: the Performance Scale and the Vocabulary Sub-Test of the Verbal Scale of the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children, the English Picture Vocabulary Test; the Goodenough Draw-a-Man Test; the Schonell Reading Test; the Holborn Reading Scale together with Comprehension questions and Staffordshire Arithmetic Test. Statistical analysis of the results indicated that the experimental tests of learning ability designed by Miss Haynes were significantly more valid in predicting school achievement than intelligence tests.

Green, Hofman and Morgan[13] discuss the relative 'culture-fairness' of verbal and non-verbal intelligence tests. Observing that past opinion has presumed that Negroes are at a greater disadvantage in the former, they cite various investigations which indicate the contrary. For example, Bean[33] and Kennedy et al,[34] in testing the I.Q. of Southern Negro children found verbal items to show lower I.Q. whereas Hammer[35] and Newland and Lawrence[36] found that Southern Negro children performed less well on non-verbal than on verbal items. Clarke[37] also found in a comparison between North American white and Negro children that the Negroes achieved higher scores on the verbal than on the non-verbal items. Higgins and Sivers[38] found that Negroes performed less well than white subjects on Raven's Coloured Progressive Matrices although the Stanford-Binet test revealed no differences between the groups. Green et al[13] conclude that 'neither the intelligence tests nor the children who take them are ever culture free.'

There have also been investigations concerned particularly with the effect of bilingualism on intelligence test performance. Pintner and Keller[39] in 1922 studied the effect of language handicap on the performance of foreign children in America on the Binet Test. The sample consisted of 367 English speaking Americans and 674 foreign immigrants. No attempt at measuring the degree of bilingualism was reported. The foreign children were found to perform less well than the English speaking ones. Pintner and Keller suggest that these results could be due to low potential on the part of the foreign children or to their language handicap. No significant difference was found between the monoglots' and bilinguals' performance on non-verbal tests of intelligence.

Darsie,[40] in 1926 found that social environment and parental occupational level correlated with intelligence, M. Rigg[41] in 1928 found that degree of language handicap was related to performance on intelligence tests, and N. T. Darcy,[42] 1946, found that bilinguals performed significantly less well than monoglots on verbal and non-verbal intelligence tests.

G. T. Altus,[43] 1953, compared the performance of a bilingual group of Mexican descent with that of a unilingual group of non-Mexican descent in the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for children. A highly significant difference of 17 points I.Q. on the scale was reported in favour of the monoglot group.

In 1959 Kittell[44] tested the hypothesis that the poor performance of bilingual children on verbal tests of intelligence might be due to socio-economic status, as well as to language handicap. A sample of 83 elementary school children in Berkeley, California, was tested on the California Short Form Test of Mental Maturity, Primary 1953 and the California Reading Test, Primary Form AA. 41 of the children were unilingual and 42 were bilingual; the bilingual children were divided into three subgroups - those with both parents born in the U.S.A., those with both parents of foreign birth, and those with one born in the U.S.A. and one foreign born.

Test results showed that the bilingual children scored lower than the unilingual children on the language section of the California Short Form Test of Mental Maturity, that the unilingual children did not do equally well on both sections of this test, performing less well on the non-language section, that the unilingual children of middle occupational class parents obtained superior scores in language and mental ability to the bilingual children of parents of the same social class, and that no significant difference was found in reading ability between the two groups. In interpreting these results one weakness in sampling procedure should be borne in mind - the bilingual group contained different, unspecified nationalities. H. M. McD. Alleyne[45] also investigated the effects of bilingualism on intelligence and attainment testing, which is discussed in Section 3 of this Chapter and in Chapter 6 Part 1.

A. J. Mitchell (1937)[46] carried out an investigation to test the hypothesis that bilingualism would affect the ability of children to think

with equal accuracy and facility in either language. A sample of 236 Mexican children in the first, second and third school grades, whose mother tongue was Spanish, were given Forms A and B of the Otis Group Intelligence Primary Examination. The test was administered by a Spanish teacher and the instructions given in English for Form A and Spanish for Form B. The results were highly significant in favour of Form B, and Mitchell concluded that the children's thinking was not as accurate in their second language as in their mother tongue and that bilinguals' scores in non-verbal tests of intelligence might well rise if the test instructions were given in their first language. In 1968 P. E. Vernon had also recommended that immigrant testers should be trained to administer intelligence tests to immigrant children in British schools, using the children's first language when giving instructions.

Anastasi et al (1953)[47] administered the Cattell 'Culture-Free' Intelligence Test Forms 2A and 2B to a sample of 176 Puerto Rican children in grades 6-8 of a New York school, using Kittell's design involving the use of English and Spanish instructions. The linguistic background of the children was assessed by questionnaire. A correlation of between .84 and .92 was found between the English and Spanish versions of the test but the group performance as a whole was lower than the norm for the population on which the test was standardised. This was attributed to a number of possible contributory causes, the low socio-economic status of the immigrants, lack of test sophistication, the effect of bilingualism lowering mental reasoning efficiency in both languages and the 'emotional maladjustment of foreign children.'

In 1955 Morgan[48] used a sample of Welsh children to compare the effects of varying degrees of bilingualism on non-verbal intelligence test performance. The 500 children were divided into ten categories on the basis of their linguistic backgrounds which were assessed by an adaptation of the Hoffman Bilingual Schedule. Three tests were administered, the instructions

being in Welsh. These were Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices, Daniels' Figure Reasoning Test and Lee and Jenkins' Non-Verbal Test. Those children with a predominantly English language background achieved higher scores on the non-verbal intelligence tests than children with a predominantly Welsh background and an increase in familiarity with English correlated positively with scores on the non-verbal tests. It was noted that of the three non-verbal tests, Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices appeared to be the least affected by Welsh background. Morgan emphasised that the test performance was not only affected by bilingualism but by age, sex, socio-economic status, time limit in doing the test and urban or rural background.

It would appear, therefore, from the investigations of Mitchell, Anastasi et al and Morgan that, far from being culture 'fair' or 'free', non-verbal tests of intelligence are affected, as verbal ones, by linguistic background and by socio-economic factors in the environment. Is there therefore any justification or advantage to be gained from using intelligence tests, standardised on Western white populations, to assess the 'intelligence' or 'educational potential' of non-mother-tongue speakers of English, non-white races, immigrants in Britain?

P. E. Vernon[8] maintains that there is no objection to assessing non-Europeans on tests standardised for an indigenous English population since most immigrants aim at achievement within British society. He quotes Anastasi and Foley[49] in 1949, whose view he regards as representative of the general view of most contemporary psychologists -

> 'Intelligence tests measure certain abilities required for success in the particular culture on which they were developed. Cultures differ in the specific activities which they encourage, stimulate and value. The "higher mental processes" of one culture may be the relatively worthless "stunts" of another!'

and refers to a 'mass of accumulated evidence' showing the dependence of test scores on nutritional, linguistic, home and educational conditions. However, he goes on to assert that it is 'not quite so meaningless as

Anastasi's statements suggest to apply the Western yardstick to non-Western groups.' He justifies this viewpoint on the basis that because such tests originated from Western societies which are highly industrialised and complex, Western tests sample the type of reasoning and conceptual skills needed by all people who have to adjust to new situations and solve new problems -

> 'Enactive and iconic processes will generally suffice for a static society, but for change and progress some members at least must develop an intelligence based on seminal and flexible linguistic and numerical symbols.'

However, although he feels that there is some benefit to be gained from applying Western type tests to non-Western cultures, he cautions that such tests will not sample all the skills most valued by the non-Western cultures. Nor does the use of 'culturally-loaded' tests within different cultural groups justify their use to compare different groups except where, as with Doob's[50] investigations, the intention is to compare variations of scores between groups with variations in 'antecedent conditions' (presumably such as different linguistic and socio-economic environments). Vernon observes regarding this -

> 'It would seem...the main problem in testing groups with diverse backgrounds is not to find a culturally unbiased test which is impossible, but to find tests from which safer inferences can be drawn.'

In other words, one has to select tests which are least distorted by irrelevent factors, such as failure to understand instructions or factors of motivation. He concludes -

> 'The safest basis for assessing the immigrant child's future educability is to observe the actual progress he makes in acquiring the new language and in school achievement and adjustment over a year, or indeed as long as possible. But of course this is unstandardised.'

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CHAPTER 3

THE EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

Section 1: The Reasons for the Present Research

During eighteen months' English teaching in a London College for Further Education it was found that students with a West Indian background, be they recent immigrants or born here of West Indian parentage, had difficulty in learning to recognise and produce the Standard British English required to enable them to fulfil their prime objectives in attending college, passing 'O' level G.C.E., C.S.E., R.S.A., or the Certificate in Office Studies, gaining access to higher education or obtaining employment. In contrast, students from Cyprus, Greece, India, all those, in fact, for whom English was a second language as against a second dialect, increased their mastery of the structures of S.B.E. in proportion to the amount of effort they put into their studies. Most West Indian students, however hard they tried, made little progress.

The methods of teaching English as a Foreign Language, which emphasise intensive oral drilling and lead the student through a progressive mastery of graded arrangements of English structures, did not help the West Indian students as much as the others. Their difficulties seemed more akin to those of the low income British students in the college, in that the structures and lexis they used differed from the standard. As the two codes, the standard and their variation of it, were very similar, they found it difficult to distinguish between them and particularly to use both without mixing them. Non-mother-tongue speakers of English, however, in learning S.B.E. learned a code unrelated to their first language and were not subject to the same confusion.

It has therefore been postulated that West Indian students have different, and in many ways more difficult, problems in learing S.B.E. than students for whom English is a second or foreign language. Traditional E.F.L. teaching methods might therefore need to be modified before being applied to West Indians. It was further postulated that there would be a closer relationship between the West Indians' progressive mastery of S.B.E. and such environmental and social factors as rural/urban background and previous education than in the case of students with a first language other than English for whom the most important factors would be the amount of contact with S.B.E., for example, the amount taught in school and the number of English social contacts.

In increasing their command of S.B.E. while at college West Indian students would also make far less observable progress than the other language groups whose progress would be more related to degree of motivation, effort, regularity of attendance etc.

It was, therefore, decided to test these hypotheses within an experimental design, the aim being to clarify the nature of the West Indians' difficulties in learning S.B.E. in order to devise suitable teaching methods for them. This is considered to be important as there is much current discussion of the educational problems peculiar to West Indians but little controlled investigation of them and few practical suggestions for the teachers concerned particularly in further education.

Section 2: The Experimental Design

(i) Summary

During two academic sessions (1972-3 : 1973-4), a battery of seven English tests, six of which were constructed specifically for the purpose of the investigation, was administered to a sample of 234, consisting of 114 Jamaicans, 65 Greek and Turkish and 55 British subjects following full-time courses in a London College for Further Education. After an interval of approximately 28 weeks, two of the tests were re-administered and difference scores calculated. The sample also completed standardised tests of verbal and non-verbal intelligence and two tests of listening discrimination specifically constructed for the investigation. Information on the sample's educational, social and linguistic background was collected by means of a questionnaire constructed by the writer, and completed by her during individual interviews with the subjects. Data considered suitable for statistical analysis was extracted and numerically coded for analysis by computer.

Two of the tests in the English Test battery, Tests 1 and 2, were submitted to item analysis by computer and measures of reliability and item facility values obtained. Means and standard deviations of the three subsamples' (Jamaican, Greek/Turkish, U.K.) performance on all the tests and the two re-tests were computed and the groups' performance compared by t-test. The relationship between the independent variables and criterion test scores was investigated by t-tests and correlation.

(ii) The Test Timetable

The English Test Battery comprised:

Test 1	an untimed 100-item multiple choice test of S.B.E. syntax.
Test 2	an untimed 100-item guided response test of S.B.E. syntax. using the same lexis and structures as Test 1.
Essay Test	an untimed essay on the topic 'Myself', using past, present and future conditional structures.

Picture Test (Oral) — an untimed test of the subjects' ability to discuss in an S.B.E. code fixed situation using a picture as stimuli.

Picture Test (Written) — an untimed test of the subjects' ability to write about the same picture.

Reading Test — an untimed test of the subjects' ability to read a passage of S.B.E. correctly.

Manchester Reading Test — a standardised, timed test of reading comprehension.

The independent variable tests:-

Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices 1958 — A test of 'non-verbal' intelligence.

The Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale — A test of 'verbal' intelligence.

Listening Discrimination Tests — Two tests of 164 items to assess the subjects' ability to discriminate between S.B.E. sound patterns.

Two of the tests in the English Test Battery were repeated - Test 2 and the essay test. The second essay test topic was 'The College.'

TABLE 2: THE TEST TIMETABLE

Week Number	Test
1	Test 1: Manchester Reading Test
3	Test 2: Essay 1
4/5	Picture Tests, Oral and Written: Reading Test
5	Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices: Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale: Listening Discrimination
28	Test 2 repeated: Essay 2

(iii) The Hypotheses

The writer's observations while teaching led to the formulation of a number of hypotheses concerned with the difficulties faced by West Indian students learning S.B.E. It was hypothesised that West Indian students had different and in some ways more difficult, problems in this than students for whom English was a second or foreign language and that these difficulties were in some respects similar to those of low income British students. Interference from West Indian dialect would be greater than from a foreign

language and as a result West Indian students would make less progress in improving their command of written and spoken S.B.E. Factors such as whether they were from a rural or an urban background, extent and level of their education in Britain and regularity of attendance at college would be more closely related to attainment and progress in S.B.E. for speakers of English as a foreign language than for West Indians. Related hypotheses were that there would be a significant correlation between measured verbal but not non-verbal intelligence and ability in S.B.E. for West Indians and speakers of English as a foreign language and that the West Indians would have as much difficulty as the latter in discriminating between S.B.E. sound patterns. The tests described in Section 2 (ii) above were administered to a sample of Jamaican, Greek, Turkish and British students and information on background factors collected in order to test the hypotheses as follows:

1. S.B.E. attainment

   (i) The Jamaican subsample would perform no better on English language proficiency tests than the Greek/Turkish subsample. (Tests 1 and 2)

   (ii) The Jamaican and Greek/Turkish subsamples would have difficulty with different S.B.E. structures. (Different facility values for Tests 1 and 2 items)

   (iii) The Jamaican and Greek/Turkish subsamples would find it easier to recognise S.B.E. than to produce it. (Tests 1 and 2)

   (iv) The Jamaican subsample would have as much difficulty as the Greek/Turkish subsample in producing acceptable written S.B.E. in composition. (Essay Test 1)

   (v) The Jamaican subsample would make more errors in the oral than in the written form of S.B.E. whereas the Greek/Turkish subsample would make similar numbers of errors in each form. (Picture Oral and Written Tests)

   (vi) The Jamaican subsample would read certain S.B.E. structures incorrectly, whereas the Greek/Turkish subsample would make only pronunciation errors. (Reading Test)

   (vii) The Jamaican subsample would have as much difficulty as the Greek/Turkish subsample in understanding a reading passage in S.B.E. (Manchester Reading Test)

2. Progress in S.B.E.

The Jamaican and U.K. subsamples would make less progress than the Greek/Turkish subsample in improving their command of S.B.E. (Tests 2 and 2 repeat: Essays 1 and 2)

3. The relationship between 'intelligence' measure and S.B.E. attainment

(i) There would be no significant positive correlation between the scores on a non-verbal standardised intelligence test and scores on English attainment tests for the three subsamples. (Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices: The English Test Battery)

(ii) There would be a significant positive correlation between the scores on a verbal standardised intelligence test and on English attainment tests for the three subsamples. (Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale: The English Test Battery)

4. The relationship between listening discrimination and S.B.E. attainment

The Jamaican subsample would hear certain sounds incorrectly, would fail to discriminate accurately between minimal pairs (words differing in only one phoneme), and would have as much difficulty in this as the Greek/Turkish subsample for whom English was a foreign language. (Listening Discrimination Tests 1 and 2)

5. The relationship between background factors and S.B.E. attainment

(i) A significant relationship would be found between number of years and level of U.K. education and S.B.E. attainment for the Greek/Turkish subsample but not for the Jamaican. (Questionnaire: English Test Battery)

(ii) A significant relationship would be found between U.K. birth and S.B.E. attainment for the Greek/Turkish subsample but not for the Jamaican. (Questionnaire: English Test Battery)

(iii) A significant relationship would be found between rural/urban background and S.B.E. attainment for the Jamaican subsample but not for the Greek/Turkish. (Questionnaire: English Test Battery)

(iv) A significant relationship would be found between expressed intention to settle in the U.K. and S.B.E. attainment for the Greek/Turkish subsample but not for the Jamaican. (Questionnaire: English Test Battery)

(v) For each of the three subsamples there would be a significant relationship between S.B.E. attainment and public examination performance in English. (English Test Battery: English public examination performance in English)

6. The relationship between background factors and progress in S.B.E.

> A significant relationship would be found between the Greek/Turkish subsample's regularity of attendance and progress in S.B.E. but no significant relationship would be found for the Jamaican subsample. (Test 2 and 2 repeat: Essays 1 and 2: Attendance measure)

Limitations of the present investigation

The present investigation has many limitations. It is based on a relatively small sample (234 cases) in only one college. It has not been possible to have equal numbers in each of the language groups within the sample. Subjects have been lost due to student wastage and it is possible that this has produced a biased sample because those subjects who have left before completing the test battery and who have therefore been dropped from the sample may have had the lowest motivation or largest personal learning problems. In order to have sufficient numbers within each language group studied, only the Jamaicans out of the West Indian students have been included in the investigation and only the Greek and Turkish speakers represent those for whom English is a second language. However, although there are considerable differences between the West Indian islands it is considered that there are sufficient similarities to make Jamaicans a representative group. Again, although Greeks and Turks, and Greek and Turkish Cypriots differ from one another as to the precise nature of their difficulties in learning S.B.E. it is felt that these differences are less than the similarities between them when their situation is compared with that of the Jamaicans.

It has not been easy to arrange uniform test situations for all members of the sample. Inevitably because some have been absent when certain tests have been administered it has not been possible to adhere rigidly to the test timetable for all subjects. Again, owing to individual lesson time-tables some subjects within the sample have occasionally been given the tests on different days or at different times and this, added to the

impossibility of controlling such individual factors as the subjects' health, emotional stability, anxiety level, etc., at the time of testing has lessened the degree of control.

The subjects' attitudes towards the tests have varied. Some have co-operated more than others. Some have had to be persuaded to complete the tests whereas others have been enthusiastic. However, a record of less co-operative subjects has been kept and has been found to include members of all groups. A teacher-student rating scale on such factors as motivation has not been possible as the subjects have been taught by different teachers and different combinations of teachers.

There are no English language tests standardised for mixed language/dialect groups within the 16-18 year range and the other English tests available were not considered suitable. The English test battery, except for one test, had therefore to be specifically constructed for the investigation, although the pressures of the college timetable and smallness of the sample did not permit extensive piloting and test validation.

No suitable test was found to support the hypothesis that the improved scores of the Greek and Turkish speaking subjects, measured by the English Test Battery, would be significantly related to their motivation whereas those of the Jamaicans would not. However, it was felt that even had there been such a test the results would not have been reliable because the artificial nature of the test situation would have altered the subjects' normal behaviour. A subject who might be expected to persevere in learning English structures in a normal lesson or by private study might consider the test itself to be meaningless.

Similarly, various tests of sociability, introversion/extroversion, or aggression tests have been considered to support the hypothesis that the Greek and Turkish speakers' command of S.B.E., as measured by the English Test Battery, would improve relative to their degree of social mixing and

consequent use of language. No suitable ones have been found but again, it is doubtful whether they would have been of any use. Merely to measure the subjects' degree of sociability would not be sufficient because one would need to know whether they mixed with S.B.E. speakers or others. Questions to provide a rough measure of this type of contact with S.B.E. have been included in the questionnaire designed to collect background data but it was not considered feasible to derive from it a measure of contact with S.B.E. reflecting fairly the proportionate influence of the different types of contact experience. The information was therefore used for the case studies only.

Of these limitations, the most serious is the smallness of the sample. In an investigation of this nature a very complex model and consequently a very large number of cases would be required to explore the implications and intercorrelations of the numerous factors involved. Where one investigates the connections between only a few of the factors involved there is inevitably an imbalance or distortion built into the design.

CHAPTER 4

THE SAMPLE

The sample for the present investigation was drawn from the 1972-3 and the 1973-4 intake of students on full-time courses in the Hackney and Stoke Newington College for Further Education, situated in the London Borough of Hackney.

Section 1: The London Borough of Hackney[1]

(i) The Population

(a) Total Population figures

The 1971 census figures[2] give a total enumerated population for the London Borough of Hackney of 220,279. The figure for 1961 was 257,522 and for 1951, 265,349, a marked decrease over two decades. The Research and Intelligence Division of the Borough estimates the average yearly decrease as 1.6 per cent,[3] because births and deaths gave an increase of 0.9 per cent per year between the censuses of 1951 and 1971. The decrease in population is seen as resulting from net emigration from the borough at an average yearly rate of 2.7 per cent. The Borough Council estimate the borough population as 213,020 in June 1973, a further decrease from the 1971 figures.

The Reverend P. J. Mason in his survey of immigrants and housing in Stoke Newington[4] cites population figures for the area immediately surrounding Hackney and Stoke Newington College for Further Education, the pre-1965 metropolitan borough of Stoke Newington. These figures contrast with those of Hackney, the 1961 population of Stoke Newington at 52,300 being 6.2 per cent greater than the 1951 one.

The 1971 census figures[5] for the present electoral wards which comprised the Borough of Stoke Newington, however, show a total population of 45,670 which represents a decrease from 1961, in accordance with the trend for the borough as a whole:-

TABLE 3: 1971 CENSUS. WARD POPULATIONS

Ward	Total Population	
Brownswood	7,490	45,670
Clissold	12,090	
Defoe	13,920	
New River	12.170	

The increase in the population of Stoke Newington between 1951 and 1961 which Mason notes might have been partly due to the settling of West Indian immigrants, who arrived in the U.K. during the eighteen months between the publication of details of the 1962 Commonwealth Immigrants Act and its implementation.[6] Mason suggests that the increase in Stoke Newington's population may have been partly caused by the fact that there was a larger increase in the number of dwellings (43 per cent) available in Stoke Newington during 1951 and 1961 than there was in all other London boroughs over the same period. (The term 'dwelling' includes individual household units in multi-occupied houses.)

(b) Birthplace of Borough Population

Figures from the 1971 census on the birthplace of residents in Hackney are given in the Research and Intelligence Division information Paper No. 2 and are as follows:

TABLE 4: BIRTHPLACE OF RESIDENTS : NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES

Birthplace	Republic of Ireland		New Commonwealth America		New Comm. India Pakistan Ceylon		Other Commonwealth		Other Europe		Other Foreign		Total Non-U.K.		U.K.		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
L.B.Hackney	6,980	3.2	14,120	6.5	3,160	1.5	8,180	3.8	6,170	2.8	7,140	3.3	45,740	21.1	170,800	78.9	216,540	100
Brownswood Ward	570	8.2	320	4.6	380	5.5	710	10.2	420	6.1	260	3.8	2,680	38.4	4,300	61.6	6,980	100
Clissold Ward	400	3.3	1,050	8.8	170	1.4	970	8.1	300	3.0	410	3.4	3,370	28.1	8,620	71.9	11,980	100
Defoe Ward	520	3.7	1,410	10.2	220	1.6	820	5.9	340	2.5	560	4.1	3,870	28.1	9,910	71.9	13,780	100
New River Ward	450	3.7	300	2.5	150	1.3	370	3.1	690	5.8	400	3.3	2,370	19.7	9,640	80.3	12,010	100

The four electoral wards for which figures are given in the Table above comprised the pre-1965 Metropolitan Borough of Stoke Newington. The data is based on the persons enumerated at their address of usual residence and visitors to the borough are therefore excluded. It can be seen from the table that the largest group of those not born in the U.K. in the Borough as a whole and in Clissold and Defoe wards separately, was the New-Commonwealth-America which includes the West Indies.

It should be noted that for the census, immigrants are defined as people born outside the U.K. The children of Jamaican parentage born in England, for example, would not be classed as immigrants. In the present investigation, however, where the chief concern is with the linguistic characteristics of the sample, the 'Jamaican subsample' includes those born in the U.K. of Jamaican parentage. Had these children been included in the Category of 'New-Commonwealth-America' one would have expected the 1971 census figures to have indicated an even higher percentage of residents who could be termed 'West Indian' at least as far as their language behaviour was concerned.[7]

Mason in his report[4] analyses the 1961 census figures according to countries of origin for those born outside the U.K. and resident in Stoke Newington. (Comparable figures are not at present available from the 1971 census.)

Total population	52,300
Total born outside U.K.	7,969
Total born in 'new' commonwealth countries or colonies	4,774
Of above, total born in Jamaica	1,314
total born in other Caribbean islands	1,089
total born in Cyprus	931
total born in Asian countries	556
total born in African countries	300

The remainder were from Europe, mostly Jews from Eastern Europe. These figures indicate that the largest group in Stoke Newington were from Jamaica.

TABLE 5: AGE STRUCTURE OF TOTAL WARD POPULATIONS : PERCENTAGES

Age Group	0 - 4	5 - 9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59	60-64	65-69	70-74	75	Total Nos.
L.B.Hackney	8.2	8.2	7.1	6.8	8.4	6.3	5.7	5.4	5.8	6.3	5.9	6.5	6.3	5.0	3.6	4.6	220,280
Brownswood Ward	7.2	4.8	4.0	5.6	15.6	11.1	8.5	5.4	5.9	5.2	5.0	6.1	5.8	3.9	2.6	3.4	7,490
Clissold Ward	9.4	9.2	7.4	6.3	7.9	7.1	7.1	6.1	5.7	5.9	5.0	5.9	6.1	4.1	3.0	3.7	12,090
Defoe Ward	9.2	9.2	7.6	6.6	8.4	6.6	6.4	5.8	5.5	5.9	5.0	6.1	5.6	4.5	3.0	4.6	13,920
New River Ward	6.5	6.8	7.1	7.5	8.9	5.4	4.2	4.8	5.8	7.1	8.1	8.3	6.7	4.9	3.4	4.6	12,180

(c) Age structure of London Borough of Hackney Population

Table 5 (p. 112) gives figures from the Information Paper No. 2 of the Research and Intelligence Division for the percentage age structure of the borough residents.

It is evident from these figures that the largest age groups are the under nines and the early twenties, followed by the 10 to 14 and then the 15 to 19 year groups. That is, a large percentage of the total borough population are of Junior and Secondary school age.

R. B. Davison in his survey of Jamaican Immigration to England[8] gives percentage figures for the age groups of persons living in Jamaican households in seven London boroughs, including Hackney and Stoke Newington, for which the figures were as follows:-

TABLE 6: JAMAICAN HOUSEHOLDS : PERCENTAGES IN AGE GROUP

	Men		Women	
	Under 30	Under 50	Under 30	Under 50
Stoke Newington	56	97	64	97
Hackney	55	96	62	97

(figures refer to the pre-1965 metropolitan boroughs)

These figures again reflect a predominantly young population.

(ii) Type of Household

Figures are given in the Information Paper No. 2 for Household size, tenure and amenities and number of persons per room, extracted from the 1971 Census figures. Households in all permanent and non-permanent buildings were enumerated on the basis of at least one person being present on Census night.

Table 7 gives the household size, the numbers and percentages of households.

TABLE 7: HOUSEHOLD SIZE. NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF HOUSEHOLDS

	One person						Two person		Three person		Four person		Five person		Six or more persons		Total Households	
	Pensioner		Other		Total													
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
L.B.Hackney	11,080	13.9	9,150	11.5	20,230	25.3	24,640	30.9	14,150	17.7	10,220	12.8	5,340	6.7	5,240	6.6	79,820	100
Brownswood Ward	330	10.4	1,040	32.6	1,370	42.9	890	27.9	480	15.0	260	8.0	100	3.3	90	2.9	3,190	100
Clissold Ward	540	12.5	520	12.1	1,060	24.5	1,320	30.3	750	17.4	560	12.9	300	6.9	350	8.0	4,340	100
Defoe Ward	620	12.8	520	10.9	1,140	23.7	1,470	30.6	850	17.6	600	12.3	350	7.3	410	8.5	4,820	100
New River Ward	520	11.9	500	11.4	1,020	23.3	1,420	32.4	800	18.2	580	13.2	270	6.3	290	6.6	4,370	100

The Information Paper No. 1 states that in 1971 Hackney had a higher proportion of one-person households and of six or more person households than Greater London and a smaller proportion of two, three, four or five person households. A rider is added to the effect that no firm conclusions can be drawn from the recorded increase in large households as two separate families occupying one dwelling and sharing one or more meals a day would be recorded as one household.

Table 8 (p. 116) gives details of type of tenure and access to amenities. The three amenities on which the figures are based are fixed bath or shower, hot water supply and inside W.C. It will be seen from this Table that a fairly substantial group of the borough population lack access to at least one of the basic amenities.

Table 9 (p. 117) which is also taken from the Information Paper No. 2, indicates that a considerable proportion of the borough residents live in crowded conditions, that is, over 1.5 persons per room.

R. B. Davison[7] cites the following figures from an analysis of the 1961 census regarding the type of household tenure of the different groups within the borough.

TABLE 10: HOUSEHOLD TENURE (1961 CENSUS)

Owner Occupier	%	Renting Furnished	%	Renting Unfurnished	%	Council Tenancy	%
Cypriot	34	Caribbean	75	English	53	English	24
Polish	33	Jamaican	61	Irish	40	Irish	15
Jamaican	25	Pakistani	58	Polish	35	Polish	13
Pakistani	18	Indian	48	Cypriot	30	Indian	7
Indian	16	Irish	34	Indian	26	Cypriot	6
English	13	Cypriot	28	Pakistani	16	Pakistani	5
Caribbean	9	Polish	18	Caribbean	14	Caribbean	1
Irish	8	English	7	Jamaican	12	Jamaican	1

(Caribbean excludes Jamaican; figures for the English group are based on a 1 in 25 sample.)

TABLE 8: TENURE AND AMENITIES : PERCENTAGES OF TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS

	Owner Occupied			Local Authority			Unfurnished Rented			Furnished Rented			Not Stated			Total Households		
	Total	Amenities		Total	Amenities		Total	Amenities		Total	Amenities		Total	Amenities		Total	Amenities	
		Sharing 1 or more	Lacking		Sharing 1 or more	Lacking		Sharing 1 or more	Lacking		Sharing 1 or more	Lacking		Sharing 1 or more	Lacking		Sharing 1 or more	Lacking
L.B.Hackney	11.6	1.9	2.8	42.6	0.4	2.0	33.1	4.2	18.2	11.3	5.9	3.2	1.4	0.3	0.4	100	12.8	26.5
Brownswood Ward	10.0	4.5	0.5	13.3	0.5	0.3	26.6	9.4	7.7	48.6	31.5	8.5	1.5	0.8	0.2	100	46.7	17.1
Clissold Ward	18.8	3.6	4.1	27.4	0.6	2.0	37.2	5.6	23.8	15.1	7.1	5.4	1.5	0.3	0.5	100	17.3	35.9
Defoe Ward	20.3	2.6	5.9	26.1	0.9	2.0	40.3	4.6	22.6	11.6	5.3	4.0	1.7	0.2	0.6	100	13.6	35.0
New River Ward	10.9	2.0	0.3	62.2	0.7	0.5	15.8	4.8	2.8	10.1	6.3	1.6	1.1	0.4	0	100	14.3	5.2

TABLE 9: TENURE AND PERSONS PER ROOM : PERCENTAGES OF TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS

	Owner Occupied			Local Authority			Unfurnished Rented			Furnished Rented			Not Stated			Total Households		
		p.p.r.			p.p.r.			p.p.r.			p.p.r.			p.p.r.			p.p.r.	
	Total	Over 1.5	1.01-1.5	Total	Over 1.5	1.01-1.5	Total	Over 1.5	1.01-1.5	Total	Over 1.5	1.01-1.5	Total	Over 1.5	1.01-1.5	Total	Over 1.5	1.01-1.5
L.B.Hackney	11.6	0.4	1.0	42.6	1.3	4.2	33.1	1.9	2.9	11.3	2.1	1.0	1.4	0.2	0.1	100	5.8	9.2
Brownswood Ward	10.0	0.2	0.7	13.3	0.3	0.9	26.6	2.2	2.3	48.6	7.4	2.7	1.5	0.2	0	100	10.2	6.7
Clissold Ward	18.8	0.7	1.9	27.4	0.8	2.8	37.2	2.0	3.6	15.1	3.2	2.1	1.5	0.2	0.2	100	6.9	10.7
Defoe Ward	20.3	0.8	2.3	26.1	0.6	2.6	40.3	3.0	3.9	11.6	2.2	0.9	1.7	0.1	0.2	100	6.7	9.9
New River Ward	10.9	0.3	0.9	62.2	0.7	5.0	15.8	1.4	1.6	10.1	1.5	1.0	1.1	0	0.2	100	3.9	8.7

According to these figures the Jamaicans were owner occupiers to a larger extent than the English but there was a larger proportion of them in furnished tenancy. The English were mainly in rented furnished accommodation and in Council tenancy. Mason[4] states that the houses owned by Jamaicans would be likely to be sublet and often overcrowded as this provided the only means by which the mortgage, often obtained at high rates of interest, could be paid. The houses would have been bought in the first place by Jamaicans, as owning one's own property would probably be the only alternative to renting furnished accommodation, the most insecure form of tenancy until the 1974 Act. In any case, recently arrived immigrants would have been unlikely to obtain Council or unfurnished tenancy.

Davison[8] gives figures for the percentage of households in each group living in shared dwellings. These figures were obtained from his survey of seven London boroughs. The figures for Hackney and Stoke Newington were as follows:

TABLE 11: PERCENTAGE OF HOUSEHOLDS LIVING IN SHARED DWELLINGS

	Metropolitan Borough of Hackney %	Stoke Newington %
Jamaican	69	89
Caribbean	67	91
Pakistani	65	63
Indian	57	44
Cypriot	51	72
Irish	48	68
Polish	34	47
English	25	44

From these figures it would appear that the Jamaicans were the group with the largest percentage living in shared dwellings. He also gives figures for the seven boroughs of the percentage of people in each group living in households occupying from one to seven or more rooms.

TABLE 12: ROOMS OCCUPIED BY SELECTED HOUSEHOLD GROUPS (SEVEN LONDON BOROUGHS) % OF PEOPLE

Households occupying following number of rooms	Households in which the Head was born in:-							
	England	Jamaica	Caribbean	India	Pakistan	Poland	Ireland	Cyprus
1	2	29	43	16	22	6	11	7
2	9	20	24	15	15	12	21	17
3	29	16	15	21	21	23	27	29
Total 1-3	40	65	82	52	57	41	59	53
4	27	9	6	18	12	23	20	19
5	15	7	3	13	7	10	10	10
6	12	10	4	9	14	10	7	11
7 or more	6	9	3	8	10	13	4	6
No. of persons	26,288	24,987	14,849	6,130	740	10,136	44,268	8,013

The Caribbean and Jamaican groups are here shown as having the highest percentage of household groups occupying only one room.

Mason in his report[4] refers to the Milner Holland report on housing in Greater London (1965),[9] where it indicates that over a large area of Stoke Newington 10 to 17 per cent of its population were living at a rate of $1\frac{1}{2}$ per room, and in a small proportion of the area 25 per cent were doing so.

(iii) Employment

1971 Census figures for the industry of persons in employment are given in the table below, which is 10 per cent enumerated:

TABLE 13: INDUSTRY OF PERSONS IN EMPLOYMENT

	Agriculture	Mining	Manufacturing	Construction	Utility and transport	Distribution and services	National Local Govern.& Defence
L.B.Hackney	6	4	3,697	585	1,292	3,972	585
Brownswood	1	0	205	25	60	186	29
Clissold	1	1	204	42	67	201	29
Defoe	0	1	231	32	87	214	62
New River	0	0	182	23	81	287	46

It is evident that the manufacturing industries account for most of the employment within the Borough. The largest groups of industries are concerned with clothing, shoe making and furniture manufacture but there are also other factories involved, for example, in the manufacture of machines, with box making, brewing, electrical engineering and printing and with biscuit, soft drinks, sugar, confectionery and fertilizer manufacturing. Builders' merchants, timber, leather and textile dealers also provide employment, as do the banks, estate agents and the public service and transport sectors.

In reports submitted by the Senior Careers Officer to the North London Youth Employment Committee of the I.L.E.A. in 1972 and 1973, statistics are given for the numbers of school and college leavers entering various types of employment in North East London. These are reproduced in Table 14 following:

TABLE 14: OCCUPATIONS OF SCHOOL AND COLLEGE LEAVERS 1971-73

	BOYS			GIRLS		
	1971	1972	1973	1971	1972	1973
CLERICAL						
General Clerical	120	109	58	318	337	164
Shorthand Typists, Typists and Office Machine Operators	1	5	16	177	147	94
Total	121	114	74	495	484	258
SERVICE INDUSTRIES						
Catering	8	33	1	8	3	3
Dental Nurse	-	-	-	-	4	5
Floristry	-	-	1	-	-	3
Hairdressing	-	2	-	17	28	9
Jockey	-	1	-	-	-	-
Nursing	-	-	-	5	9	1
Nursery Nursing	-	-	-	4	7	4
Photography	-	4	2	-	-	-
Police	-	-	1	-	-	-
Postman	-	5	2	-	-	-
Public Health Inspector	-	1	-	-	-	-
Tr. Quantity Surveyor	-	-	2	-	-	-
Retail Distribution	68	65	10	73	74	19
Wholesale	-	19	-	-	10	4
Miscellaneous	47	28	23	21	8	8
Total	123	158	42	128	143	56

TABLE 14: OCCUPATIONS OF SCHOOL AND COLLEGE LEAVERS 1971-73 (cont'd.)

	BOYS			GIRLS		
	1971	1972	1973	1971	1972	1973
PRACTICAL						
Cartographic Draughtsman	-	-	1	-	-	-
Clothing	53	47	10	50	49	11
Commercial Artist	-	-	1	-	-	-
Construction	58	51	23	-	1	-
Electrical/Engineering	152	130	83	-	-	-
Engraving	3	6	1	-	-	-
Furniture/Timber	34	40	15	1	-	-
Jewellery/Watchmaking and repair	13	8	7	1	1	2
Laboratory Technician	13	9	3	1	1	1
Leather/Shoes	28	33	11	-	5	2
Motor Vehicle Repairs	47	44	30	-	-	-
Optical	-	7	-	-	-	-
Printing/Bookbinding	38	58	15	10	3	1
Radio and T.V.	2	2	3	-	-	-
Shop fitting	-	6	-	-	-	-
Service Mechanics	-	3	5	-	-	-
Upholstery	-	1	1	-	1	-
Miscellaneous	86	94	19	34	37	7
Total	527	539	228	97	98	24
SUMMARY						
Clerical	121	114	74	495	484	258
Service Industries	123	158	42	128	143	56
Practical	527	539	228	97	98	24
Grand Total	771	811	344	720	725	338

The lower overall figures for 1973 are mainly due to the raising of the school leaving age.

This data indicates that the largest proportion of male leavers enter employment with a practical bias, particularly in the engineering and electrical fields; the majority of female leavers take up clerical work.

Davison[8] gives figures from a 10 per cent analysis of the 1961 census regarding the occupations of males aged 15 years and above, in 28 London metropolitan boroughs. Retired persons were included.

TABLE 15: OCCUPATIONS OF MALES (%)

Occupational group	Birthplace							
	England	Jamaica	Carib'n	India	Pakistan	Poland	Ireland	Cyprus
1. Professional	3	*	1	14	10	7	2	1
2. Employers and Managers	9	1	1	10	11	13	3	10
3. Foremen skilled manual, own account	36	39	33	18	11	34	30	36
4. Non-manual	23	4	10	34	23	17	13	6
5. Personal service, semi-skilled manual, agriculture	15	22	24	13	24	18	20	30
6. Unskilled manual Armed Forces and others	14	34	30	10	21	12	31	18
Number	3,552	1,389	1,250	1,097	211	1,258	6,143	883

(* below 0.5% : English 1 in 25 sample)

It can be seen from Table 15 that the majority of Jamaicans fall into groups 3, 5 and 6, with under 0.5 per cent in group 1. The Cypriots fall mainly in groups 3 and 5 and the English in 3 and 4.

Davison also gives figures regarding the occupation of Jamaican immigrants in the seven boroughs included in his survey.

TABLE 16: OCCUPATIONS OF JAMAICAN IMMIGRANTS (%)

	Male	Female
Unskilled	44	24
Machine operators	12	24
Storekeepers, packers Semi-skilled	40	36
Clerical Occupations	-	2
Others	4	14
No replies	103	123
No clear reply	5	3

It is evident from Table 16 that most Jamaicans were in unskilled or semi-skilled occupations

(iv) Education

The current official information guide published by the Hackney Borough Council lists twenty-three secondary and comprehensive schools within the borough and fifty-seven Junior and Infants ones. The secondary and comprehensive schools include three that are Roman Catholic and one Church of England, and six schools for the Educationally Subnormal. At the time of the present investigation there were two separate further education establishments, Hackney Technical College and Hackney and Stoke Newington College for Further Education.[10]

The Community Relations Commission in 1972 published figures for the London boroughs where the number of new commonwealth immigrant children[11] exceeded 2 per cent of all pupils in maintained primary and secondary schools. The figures for Hackney were as follows:

TABLE 17: PERCENTAGE OF NEW COMMONWEALTH IMMIGRANT CHILDREN IN HACKNEY SCHOOLS

January 1971			January 1972		
Primary	Secondary	Both	Primary	Secondary	Both
22.6%	19.9%	21.6%	22.9%	21.5%	22.3%

As the schools in Hackney contain a considerable proportion of non-mother-tongue speakers of English and speakers of a non-standard dialect of English, one can expect to meet many of the pedagogical, social and discipline problems described in Chapter 1, Section 4. Secondary and primary teachers within the borough have expressed their anxieties publicly, in the press and in meetings, about the shortage of staff generally and of staff trained to teach English as a second or foreign language in particular. Large teacher-pupil ratios and, in the case of some schools, overcrowded buildings exacerbate the situation. With these difficulties pupils are likely to do less well at school than they should.

Section 2: Hackney and Stoke Newington College for Further Education

The origins of Hackney and Stoke Newington College for Further Education can be traced to the late 1950's when the 'Hackney and Stoke Newington Junior, Commercial and Technical College' opened five branches operating in the evenings only. In 1961 the Day Department was opened with four members of staff, including the Principal. Later in the year they were joined by four other lecturers and the college was renamed the Hackney and Stoke Newington C.F.E. During the 1960's the college expanded and the work was separated under two departments, the General and the Commercial. In 1972 the Mathematics, Science and Technology Department was formed. In September 1974 the college was amalgamated with Poplar and Hackney Technical Colleges and became known as the Stoke Newington Centre of Hackney College. The present investigation, however, took place before the amalgamation, in the period September 1972 to April 1974.

During that period the college, like all further education colleges, undertook work up to and including 'O' level G.C.E. only. Students were drawn mainly from the London Borough of Hackney but the catchment area included the neighbouring boroughs of Haringey, Islington, Waltham Forest and Tower Hamlets.

The student population tended to fall into two main groups, those who had been to secondary schools in England, almost all to what used to be called 'secondary moderns' or to comprehensives, and those who had arrived recently from overseas. The first group mainly consisted of (a) those who could be termed 'indigenous', that is, they and their parents had been born in the U.K. and their first language was English, (b) first generation born here of West Indian parents, and (c) those born in the West Indies who had joined their parents while still under the British school leaving age. Most of them had not been academically successful at school, many had records of regular truancy and felt bitter towards their previous schools which they believed had 'failed them'. Most arrived at the college determined to 'catch up', by obtaining the qualifications which they had been unable to gain while at school. Often the standard of their written English was such that they had to leave with less paper qualifications than they had hoped for. Nearly all of them had at least a vague idea of the type of employment at which they were aiming, but their aspirations were usually unrealistic. For example, a seventeen-year-old male student whose Mathematics and English were at C.S.E. grade 4 level declared his intention was to be an Electronics Engineer, an Accountant or a Motor Mechanic. It was not usually possible to persuade such students to aim lower in the employment field, and it was often difficult to persuade them to leave when, for example, they were age nineteen or twenty and had gained only one or two C.S.E's or lower grade 'O' levels after three years of full-time study in the college.

The second main group were recently arrived immigrants from all parts of the world. The largest group (no statistics were kept at the college but an estimate often quoted by teachers and administrative staff was that 60 to 70 per cent were from Jamaica), were Jamaican, followed by those from Cyprus, the Arab States and India. Some, whose parents had been living in

the U.K. before they arrived, were classed Commonwealth students with the right of abode, others were visa students, here only to study. Some of the latter had arrived on holiday visas and gained entry to the college in order to obtain permission from the Home Office to extend their stay in the U.K.

All had serious language problems. In the college, therefore, most were unable to achieve much success academically[1] either because their previous level of education was low and/or because they were studying in a medium of instruction that was not their mother tongue or first dialect. Most of the content of the teaching courses for them in all three departments could therefore be classed as 'remedial' or 'compensatory'[2] although they were often labelled 'O' level.

During the period of the present investigation the following full-time courses were provided at the college. The General Department offered full-time courses in 'General Education' - which were remedial and in English as a Second Language for those students with the lowest level of written English and Mathematics. It also offered two-year 'G.C.E.' courses which catered for those with a slightly higher level of English, many of whom in the event did not take G.C.E. 'O' level but C.S.E. and one-year G.C.E. courses which included a selection of subjects from - English Language and Literature, Mathematics, British Constitution, Sociology, Economics, Geography, Social History, French, Art, Principles of Accounts and Commerce. Some students profited from these courses and gained two or more 'O' levels. Many did not, usually due to language problems. A course for 'mature' students was run on three days a week, comprising a variety of 'O' level classes with similar results as the full-time 'O' level courses. In addition a 'Community Studies' course was offered for students who wished to work in Children's Homes, Nursery Schools, etc., and provided an introduction to this type of work together

with an 'O' level course. A 'Pre-Hospital' course included 'O' level classes for trainee nurses, but again many had language/dialect problems and left the course or failed their examinations.

The Business Studies Department offered training in typing, shorthand and Office Practice and students took the Certificate in Office Studies, R.S.A. and Pitman examinations. Their students also attended English and Mathematics lessons organised by the other departments. Again, many failed their examinations because of the standard of their written English.

The Mathematics and Science Department offered one-year 'O' level courses to full-time students in Mathematics, Statistics, Technical Drawing, Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Human Biology and General Science. Many of the students in this Department were 'visa' students from overseas who were attempting to learn English at the same time and who consequently failed their examinations.

In addition to these full-time courses all three departments, but mainly the Business Studies, ran link courses which were attended by pupils from local schools one day per week. There were also classes for day release from industry held on a one day per week basis.

The enrolment figures during the period of the present investigation were as follows:-

TABLE 18: HACKNEY AND STOKE NEWINGTON COLLEGE FOR FURTHER EDUCATION ENROLMENT FIGURES

	September 1972	September 1973
General Department	198 Full Time	169 Full Time
	451 Part Time and Evening	106 Part Time
		86 School Link
Commercial Department	103 Full Time	90 Full Time
	90 Part Time	73 Part Time
	677 Evening	399 School Link
Mathematics, Science and Technology	60 Full Time	59 Full Time
	40 Part Time	9 Part Time
	290 Evening	297 School Link
Total Full Time enrolment	361	318

Section 3: The Sample

(i) The drawing of the sample

The sample was incidental not random. During the first week of term each member of the English staff asked the students in their group to write down their mother tongue and the place of birth of their parents and themselves. For the purpose of the investigation those who had been born in Jamaica or whose parents had been born there were classified Jamaican; Greek mother-tongue-speaking students who had been born in either Cyprus or Greece were classified 'Greek'; similarly Turkish mother-tongue-speaking students who had been born in either Cyprus or Turkey were classified as 'Turkish' and those who had been born in the U.K. and whose parents had also been born in the U.K. were classified 'U.K.'

All students in these four categories were then asked by the writer to participate in the investigation. Its aims were explained and they were told that if they agreed to co-operate they would be required to complete a battery of ten tests, two of which would be repeated at the end of their second term. They were also told that the results of the tests and any information about their home, educational and social backgrounds which they gave to the writer would be treated as confidential and that their test performance would have no bearing on the assessment of their English examination course work.

There was no attempt to obtain equal numbers of subjects within the categories or to pair the subjects on such variables as sex, age or measured intelligence.[1] All students who were agreeable were included in the sample.

In September 1972 the numbers of students in the four categories were as follows:-

Jamaican	76
Greek	22
Turkish	29
U.K.	67

Of these, the following numbers refused to participate:-

Jamaican	1
U.K.	5

This left the sample as:-

Jamaican	75
Greek	22
Turkish	29
U.K.	62

In September 1973 the following numbers of students were asked to participate:-

Jamaican	58
Greek	15
Turkish	21
U.K.	29

Of these, the following refused:-

Greek	2
Turkish	5
U.K.	4

This left the sample:-

Jamaican	58
Greek	13
Turkish	16
U.K.	25

As the numbers within the Greek and Turkish subsamples were small it was decided, in September 1973, to combine the two categories and form a Greek/Turkish subsample. It was recognised that there were differences between the form of Greek and Turkish used in Cyprus and in Greece and Turkey and that there were social, cultural and educational differences between the three countries. It was, however, felt that these differences were not so great as those between the backgrounds of the Jamaican or U.K. subsamples and either the Greek, Turkish, Greek Cypriot or Turkish Cypriot subjects.

(ii) Wastage

During the investigation subjects were lost from the sample for a variety of reasons. A few became disenchanted with the tast of completing tests and refused to continue. Others were absent when some of the tests were administered and did not return soon enough to complete them within the specified time limits.[2] Others left the college before they had completed all the tests. The numbers lost from the sample are as follows:-

	1972-73 Wastage	1973-74 Wastage
Jamaican	15	4
Greek	2	5
Turkish	-	8
U.K.	24	8
Total	41	25

Of this total wastage the following numbers of subjects were lost from the sample because they refused to continue completing the tests:-

1972-73		1973-74	
Jamaican	1	U.K.	3
U.K.	1	Turkish	1
Total	2	Total	4

The following numbers were absent for lengthy periods and had to be dropped from the sample:-

1972-73		1973-74	
Jamaican	2	Greek	1
U.K.	5	Turkish	2
		U.K.	1
Total	7	Total	4

The following numbers left during the first term:-

1972-73		1973-74	
Jamaican	7	Jamaican	1
U.K.	10	U.K.	6
		Greek	2
Total	17	Total	9

The following numbers left during the second term:-

1972-73		1973-74	
Jamaican	8	Jamaican	3
Greek	2	Greek	3
U.K.	14	Turkish	8
		U.K.	2
Total	24	Total	16

Some of the reasons subjects gave for leaving during the two terms are given below:

Reasons for leaving	Number leaving	
	1972-73	1973-74
Asked to leave, disciplinary reason	4	1
Sickness	3	2
Pregnancy	2	1
To enter employment	5	4
Stopped living within travelling distance of college	4	2
Left U.K.	3	2
Reason unknown	20	13

Due to this wastage the final sample numbered:-

Jamaican	114
Greek/Turkish	65
U.K.	55

The Test Performance of subjects lost from the sample

No subject was lost from the sample before he had completed Test 1 and Test 2 of the English Test Battery.

In an attempt to determine whether the subjects lost were representative of the remaining sample as far as English test performance was concerned, means and standard deviations of their scores on the two tests were calculated. The results, which are reported in Chapter 7, Section 2, indicate that there is no significant difference at the 0.01 level between

the Test 2 scores of the Jamaican, Greek/Turkish and U.K. subsamples and the subjects lost from each. Similarly, regarding Test 1 scores, no significant difference at the 0.01 level was found between the performance of the Greek/Turkish and U.K. subsamples and the subjects lost. A significant difference was found at the 0.01 level between the Test 1 scores of the Jamaican subsample and the Jamaican subjects lost; it was not significant, however, at the 0.05 level and the different variances between the scores of the subsample and of the subjects lost may reduce the validity of this t-test.

These results suggest that the subjects who had to be dropped from the sample were generally representative of the final sample with regard to performance on two of the criterion tests.

REFERENCES - CHAPTER 4

Section 1

1. In 1965 the London Government Act of 1963 was implemented and the Metropolitan Boroughs of Hackney, Shoreditch and Stoke Newington were amalgamated to become the London Borough of Hackney.

2. The London Borough of Hackney Council caution that there had been 'inevitably some degree of under-enumeration' and that figures should be viewed in that light. It was estimated that in 1961 under-enumeration amounted to 0.8 per thousand population over London as a whole. (Information Paper No. 1 1971 Census Borough Population Size and Structure. Research and Intelligence Division, London Borough of Hackney, August 1973.)

3. Reports cited above. Information Papers 1 and 2.

4. MASON, the Rev. P. J. (1973) Immigration and Housing in Stoke Newington. Research Project submitted to the mid-service clergy course VII, St. George's House, Windsor Castle.

5. Cited in the Information Papers noted under reference 2.

6. Further discussion regarding immigration in Chapter 1.

7. A discussion of West Indian language and dialect use can be found in Chapter 1.

8. DAVISON, R. B. (1966) Black British Immigrants to England, Institute of Race Relations, Oxford University Press.

9. Report of the Committee on Housing in Greater London. The Milner Holland Report. Command Paper 2605, H.M.S.O. (1965)

10. In September 1974 these two colleges amalgamated with a third, Poplar Technical College, and became known as Hackney College.

11. Immigrant pupils were defined as'(i) children born outside the British Isles who have come to this country with, or to join, parents or guardians whose countries of origin were abroad; and (ii) children born in the U.K. to parents whose countries of origin were abroad and who came to the U.K. within the last ten years.'

Section 2

1. The 'O' level G.C.E. English Language examination results for the college during the period of the investigation are given in Appendix III.

2. A discussion of these terms can be found in Chapter 1.

Section 3

1. Some reasons for this are apparent in Chapter 3, where there is an outline of the hypotheses to be tested in the investigation; in Chapter 6, Part 1, which deals with the selection and inclusion of intelligence tests in the Battery; and in Chapter 6, Part 2, where the choice of variables for coding and statistical analysis is discussed.

2. See Chapters 5 and 6 for the procedure followed for subjects' absence during the test period.

C H A P T E R 5

THE ENGLISH TEST BATTERY

The purpose of the battery was to provide measures of the written and oral command of S.B.E. shown by the three subgroups within the sample at the beginning and end of the test period.

The English Test Battery consisted of seven tests, of which two were repeated after a lapse of 28 to 30 weeks to yield progress scores.

Section 1 Tests 1 and 2

(i) The Aim of Tests 1 and 2

A means of measuring the sample's ability to recognise and produce the structures and lexis of S.B.E. was required. For this purpose tests employing both multiple choice and guided response items are widely used but the writer could not find one which had been standardised for a mixed sample consisting of both non-mother-tongue speakers of English and speakers of a dialect of English in the 16 to 18 year age range. C. Gipps and E. Ewen have constructed such tests for the N.F.E.R.[1] but they are designed for children of junior school age.

It was therefore decided to design a test specifically for the purposes of the present investigation for the following reasons. The battery of tests constructed by Alan Davies in 1964 for the N.F.E.R. survey into the problems of overseas students includes a multiple-choice English structure test with 47 items, but it was designed for a wider range of students than those with whom the present investigation is concerned and included postgraduate research students. Consequently, with the exception of most of the items in the multiple choice structure

test, most of his tests were considered by the writer to be too difficult for the students in her sample. For the present investigation a test of English Structure was also required which could be administered in two forms - as a multiple choice and as a guided response test, thereby yielding separate measures of the sample's ability to produce and to recognise the structures of S.B.E. The items in Alan Davies' test could not all be suitably converted to guided response form.

Two tests each of 100 items were constructed; Test 1 was multiple choice and Test 2 guided response. Test 1 was administered in the first and Test 2 in the third week of the test period, and Test 2 was repeated during the last week to yield a measure of the progress made by the sample in improving their command of S.B.E.

Details of the hypotheses to be tested are given in Chapter 3, Section 2 (iii).

(ii) The construction of Tests 1 and 2

(a) The Problem: Previous Research Findings

The writing of language tests entails the making of various decisions about the structures and lexis to be tested and the relative weight to be given to each within the test. The literature on structure and lexis frequency in the English Language and in text book courses designed for the teaching of English as a Second Language had therefore to be consulted. The final decision, however, rests with the researcher because a language test can be valid only for the group for which it is designed.

In Volume 1 of the Seventh Mental Measurements Yearbook (1972, p.260) there is a review of a test designed in 1970 at the Centre for English Language Testing by David P. Harris and Leslie A. Palmer, entitled 'A Comprehensive English Language Test for speakers of English as a Second Language.' The Reviewer maintains -

'It is unlikely that there will ever be a perfect all-purpose test of English as a Second Language; any battery of reasonable length must be designed with particular purposes in mind.'

The test in question was intended for persons with a reading knowledge of English who had had formal instruction in England and who were in the U.S. for further training or education.

A similar sentiment is expressed by Peter Robinson in his article, 'The composition, adaptation and choice of Second Language Tests.'[2]

'There is no such thing as a universal test, which can be used to measure the second language competence of any group of people. Tests are only useful for the group they were designed to measure.'

Apart from the selection of the structures and lexis to be tested there is the problem of designing valid items. Literature on language testing stresses the difficulties associated with the writing of multiple choice items. Valette[3] and Murphy[4] both describe the problems and give examples of what they consider to be good items.

In an article[5] published after the testing for the present investigation had been completed, M. Celce-Murcia, G. B. Kooshian and A. J. Gosak discuss the construction of multiple-choice language tests and lay down 'Guidelines for writing and evaluating effective language test items.' -

'1. The item as a whole

(a) tests only one point,

(b) is stated in clear, idiomatic language (i.e. avoids regional and social variations),

(c) is of a suitable level of difficulty,

(d) tests knowledge of language rather than general knowledge of facts,

(e) is as concise as possible,

(f) contains no structural or referential ambiguities.

2. The stimulus

   (a) presents the point being tested in a context realistic to the examinee,

   (b) gives no inadvertent clue as to the correct answer,

   (c) avoids artificial formats (e.g. a 'matching format' or a 'definition format').

3. Choices (the right answer and the distractors)

   (a) permit only one correct answer (rather than a 'best' answer, since even native speakers of English may disagree as to what the 'best' answer is),

   (b) use distractors that are plausible, yet incorrect.'

Although one might expect adherence to these guidelines to enable one to design good items, the authors[5] recognise that even so poor items may be produced and therefore recommend reviewing and/or pre-testing. They reject as inadequate Valette's[3] description of informal review by the item-writer before the test is administered and suggest that at least one other person should review the items and/or pre-test them with suitable subjects.

The problems associated with the writing of multiple-choice items also affect the design of guided response items. Murphy[4] notes that 'supply' or 'free response' items are difficult to write because more than one choice may fill the gap. He cites the example -

'I wish I .....(have) a new motor car.'

and observes that 'the forms of the verb "had had", "could have", "might have", "could have had", will all fill the gap in the sentence.' So would 'had'.

It would appear, therefore, that in constructing valid multiple choice and guided response language tests for a particular sample one can only draw on one's own experience of its command of S.B.E. and on judgments concerning the relative frequency of structures and lexis in S.B.E., follow the kind of guidelines laid down by Celce-Murcia, Kooshian and Gosak above and obtain the assistance of colleagues in selecting the items for inclusion in the test.

(b) The construction of Tests 1 and 2

Multiple choice items were constructed for Test 1 that could be converted to guided response for Test 2.

The writer drew up a list of structures with which it was considered students should be familiar in order to write acceptable S.B.E. for G.C.E. 'O' level and to have some confidence in using it in British Society. Table 19 below gives a breakdown of the structures tested in the final version of the tests.

TABLE 19: TESTS 1 AND 2 ITEM TAXONOMY

VERBALS	Tenses	present simple, progressive (including for future)		17
		past simple, progressive		10
		present and past perfect		14
		future simple, going to, future in the past		7
		conditional		5
		reported speech		3
		present and past perfect continuous		3
	Catenatives	make do, want to do, let do		3
	Auxiliaries	must, ought		2
	Determiners	many, much	2	
		some, a, any, an	3	
		few, a few	2	7
	Prepositions			5
	Infinites/ Participle Phrases	after.....ing		
		after having.....		
		having.....		4
		while.....ing		
		before.....ing		
	Adjectivals	comparative/superlative		4
	Pronouns	reflexives	3	
		personal	3	6
	Question tags	so that, so...as, as as		3
		lexis		1
		negative form		1
		question form		1
				100

For each of the structures listed six more multiple choice items were written than were required for inclusion in Test 1. All the items were studied independently by three colleagues who checked them for clarity, and suitability for conversion to guided response items. On the basis of their criticism a selection of items was made for each structure, as in the above table. Each item included a stem, 1 answer and 3 distractors.

The relative weight given to each structure was decided on the basis of the writer's experience in teaching English as a Second Language. It was considered, for example, that students would use more present and past tense verb forms than reported speech structures and so more items tested the former than the latter. There is a general emphasis on verbals. Some of the categories overlap; negative and question forms, for example, are occasionally tested with verb tenses.

The items were then arranged in random order. It would not have been feasible to grade and arrange them in order of difficulty before administration of the test; one of the hypotheses to be tested by Tests 1 and 2 was that the items would have different facility values for each of the language sub-groups within the sample.

The completed form of Test 1 was then converted to guided response items, the order remaining the same. In three cases the stem had to be changed slightly, as below:

Item 32 Test 1 She asked.....go.
(a) if he could (b) whether he could (c) if he can (d) whether he can
Test 2 "Can I go?" She asked whether she.....(to go)

Item 54 Test 1 She is .....him.
(a) tallest than (b) tallest as (c) taller than (d) taller as.
Test 2 She is taller.....him.

Item 68 Test 1 .....he thoought about his girl friend.
(a) While working (b) While works (c) While having worked
(d) While having work
Test 2 While.....he thought about his girl friend.
(to work)

It is recognised that these alterations, in each case, eliminate part of the testing. For example, regarding item 32, Test 1 tests the candidate's ability to select 'whether' and to use the simple past tense; Test 2 only tests the ability to use the simple past tense. This was therefore borne in mind when the results were analysed and the item facility values of Tests 1 and 2 compared.

The cues were printed in brackets to the right of the stem. They were either verb infinitives by themselves or verb infinitives plus an additional word for inclusion in the completed sentence. Occasionally no cue was given. During administration of the test the different types of cue were explained to the subjects.

(iii) Procedure

(a) Test 1

Test 1 was administered during the first week of the test period. It was a group test and ideally the sample would have been brought together into large groups and would have completed the test under the same supervision and at the same time. Unfortunately, as with the other group tests administered later, the dictates of the college timetable, the preferences of the individual members of the English staff whose full co-operation was essential, and the availability of rooms did not allow this. The subjects, therefore, completed the test in small groups, in most cases corresponding to their English teaching sets. As these sets are not all timetabled in a parallel fashion it was not possible to administer the test to each group on the same day. It was, however, completed by all groups within the same week. Where a member of the sample was absent on the day the test was administered to his group he was required to complete it as soon as could be arranged after his return when his English teacher provided the rest of the group with work that could be done in silence. A subject who was absent for more than two weeks during this stage of the testing was dropped from the sample.

A College for Further Education can be a noisy environment in which to work and noise outside the classroom must have, in varying degrees, disturbed the sample during the administration of all the tests. As with personal considerations, like the emotional and physical state of the subjects during the tests, this was a variable which could not be controlled or measured. Some groups completed the test during the morning and some in the afternoon. This difference also might have affected their performance. Subjects to whom the test was administered just before lunch might have rushed it in the hope of an early lunch. Attempts were made to prevent this, all the subjects being told that they would not be allowed to leave the classroom until the official end of the lesson. Students' attitudes towards the tests varied. Some participated with a greater degree of co-operation than others; some had to be persuaded to complete the tests whereas others were enthusiastic. At one stage a teacher-student rating scale on such factors as motivation and perseverance was constructed but this could not be used as the subjects were taught by different combinations of teachers. The less co-operative students, however, appeared in all three subsamples and, in most cases, once they had begun the test they seemed to try to perform well in order not to be allocated a low grade and be embarrassed in front of the rest of the group.

The groups' English teachers were asked to compare the subjects' results on all the tests in the English battery with their ordinary class work grades and in most cases considered that the subjects' test performance was representative of their general standard of work in English.

The writer had planned personally to administer the test to all the groups; but in the event it was decided that the groups' own English teachers should do so. One reason was that it was their voices and manner that the subjects were most familiar with. There was also a practical consideration. It would not have been possible for the writer to have personally

administered the test to all the groups within the same week as some sets were timetabled at the same time as the writer was herself teaching, sometimes in a different building. It could be argued that having different teachers to give the instructions introduced an additional variable into the test; but so would having the writer throughout as some sets were more familiar with her voice and manner than others.

The English teachers involved were asked to inform the subjects that the test was not timed but that they should all finish it. A copy of the printed test was to be given to each subject together with an answer sheet on which was printed the number of each question and four letters, A B C and D, corresponding to the four choices of answer given in the multiple choice items. The subjects were to be told to read each question 'stem' carefully and then to choose the alternative which would make the completed stem 'sound like correct English.' They were then to put a circle round the letter corresponding to their choice. Only one answer would be correct in each case and on no account were they to circle more than one letter as if they did so, the item would be automatically marked wrong. They were to be encouraged to guess the answer if they did not know it and therefore to make a response to all the hundred items in the test. Care was to be taken that they understood what they were to do before the signal to begin was given and the teachers were asked to go round the room once the test had begun to check this. The test was to be completed in silence (as were all the group tests).

(b) Test 2

This was administered during the third week of the test period ensuring an interval of approximately two weeks between the administration of Tests 1 and 2. This was considered to be sufficient time for the subjects to have forgotten the multiple choice alternatives.

As with the administration of Test 1, the subjects completed the test in small groups, the instructions being given by their own English

teacher. Each was given a copy of the printed test on which the 'stems' - the incomplete sentences - were printed with gaps large enough for the insertion of the correct answer to complete the sentence. The cues were printed in brackets in the right hand margin. The teachers involved were to explain the cues to their groups by examples of their own until they were sure that each subject understood the infinitive only cues, those questions without cues, and those with infinitives plus other words. It was stressed that if an answer contained a spelling mistake it would be marked wrong. The subjects were also advised that attention had to be paid to punctuation in the cue. Subjects were to put a dash if they thought, in the case of no cue questions, that the sentence was already complete and needed no addition. Again, the test was not to be timed and subjects were encouraged to complete all the questions, by guesswork if necessary. As with Test 1 the teachers were asked to patrol the room at least once to see if the subjects had understood the instructions.

(c) Test 2 repeated

The sample completed Test 2 a second time during the final week of the test period, approximately 30 weeks later.

The administrative procedure was the same as for the first time.

(iv) The scoring of Tests 1 and 2

(a) Test 1

Because the writer alone scored the scripts they were marked twice on two separate occasions to guard against error. Where two letters were circled instead of one the item was marked wrong. Omissions were also marked wrong.

(b) Test 2

In Test 1 the subject had only to recognise the correct alternative whereas in Test 2 he had to follow the cue correctly, produce the correct structure and spell his answer correctly. There were therefore more ways

in which an answer could be considered unacceptable. Decisions had to be made as to whether to accept misspellings or answers which were grammatically correct but which did not follow the cue.

The aim of the English test battery had been to measure the sample's command of S.B.E. Spelling could be considered an important element in this. A candidate's examination performance would be affected by his ability to spell, as would his performance in any employment requiring written skills. It was therefore decided not to accept answers which contained spelling errors, nor answers which did not follow the cue. All examinations require the candidate to follow instructions. During the administration of Test 2 the subjects had been warned to make use of the cues and so it was decided to mark wrong any answers that did not.

It had to be recognised that by this system of marking, Test 2 had become a test of several skills, not just of ability to produce correct S.B.E. structure and lexis. This was considered when the item facility values of Tests 1 and 2 and their total raw scores were compared as they could not be regarded as a straightforward comparison of the ability to recognise and produce S.B.E. If, however, grammatically correct answers which had not followed the cues were accepted another type of unreliability would be introduced. A subject might have deliberately substituted a different verb from the one contained in the cue because he was more familiar with the former's grammatical structures. Even if the substitution were not deliberate a subject might gain a mark for a correct use of his substituted verb when he would have made an error had he used the verb in the cue. Similarly with omissions, unanswered questions were marked wrong on the assumption that if the subject had attempted them he would have produced the wrong answers.

Answers were therefore marked wrong if:-

1. incorrect structures, including inappropriate use of function words were used,

2. incorrect lexis (spelling errors or inappropriate choice of lexical words), were used,

3. subject had not followed the cue or part of a cue, including punctuation, e.g. question marks,

4. subject had not attempted to answer the question.

For some items there was more than one response that could be considered correct. A list of those considered can be found in Appendix VIII.

As with Test 1, the scripts were marked twice by the writer.

Coding the errors 1-4 for the facility values analysis of Test 2 was considered. The Test 1 errors could then be compared with the Test 2 errors of structure and lexis only. This was decided against. There were instances of combined errors which contained elements of two or three categories and again there was the case of the subject who might have made a structural error had he properly followed the cue. Comparing item facility values for the four types of errors would also entail making certain assumptions, for example, that there would be equal probability of a subject making each type of error on each item. Such an assumption would be invalid; some cues, for example, would appear to be easier to follow than others and in any case not all the items had cues. It was therefore decided to code the answers right and wrong as with Test 1, the 'wrong' category containing the four types of unacceptable answer.

(c) Test 2 repeated

Care was taken to mark the repeated Test 2 scripts in exactly the same way as they had been marked the first time.

This set of scripts yielded difference scores as a measure of the sample's ability to improve their written command of S.B.E. It was recognised, however, that the results would have to be treated with great

reservation. It would be easier for a candidate who had achieved a very low score in his first attempt at Test 2, 20 marks, for example, to improve by say 10 marks than it would for a candidate who had achieved 90 marks the first time. There was also the possibility that the subjects would be bored by having to complete the test again and could become careless, thus depressing their scores.

Section 2: The Essay Tests

(i) The Aim of the Essay Tests

It was felt that a measure of proficiency in S.B.E. could not be based wholly on performance in such controlled situations as those created by Tests 1 and 2. It should also be partly assessed by the ability to produce acceptable S.B.E. structures and lexis in composition.

The sample were therefore required to write two essays, one during the third and one during the last week of the test period. Comparisons would be made between the individual performances on the two essay tests of individuals and of the three language groups generally.

Details of the hypotheses to be tested by the essay tests are given in Chapter 3, Section 2 (iii).

(ii) The Selection of the Essay test topics

(a) The Problem: Previous Research Findings

In a Ph.D. study[1] Harold Rosen investigated the effects of choice of essay topic on the performance of candidates for G.C.E. 'O' level English. Fifty 15 and 16-year-old pupils were required to write ten compositions during one school year, the topics having been selected to elicit different kinds of writing. The 500 scripts were then marked by three methods which are more fully discussed in section (iv) below and in Chapter 7, Section 1 (ii), and the individual composition scores of each candidate compared.

Rosen felt that his main hypothesis was broadly confirmed by the results of the investigation, namely, that 'different kinds of writing constitute an important variable in the study of writing ability and create a hierarchy of difficulty.'

His study was an extension of some of the work of such earlier investigators as -

(a) Wiswall[2] who demonstrated in 1926 that there were significant differences in the use of complex sentences in argumentative as compared with narrative composition, the former making greater use of them.

(b) Seegers[3] in 1933 measured the ratio of subordinate to main clauses in his subjects sentence structure and found that it was affected by the method of discourse. His subjects, aged ten to twelve years, had a mean ratio of 13.0 for argument and 4.0 for narrative descriptive.

(c) Schonell,[4] who, in 1942, devised separate marking scales based on four different kinds of writing (although Rosen observed that he had offered no theoretical justification for his categories). These were:-

1. reproduction (narrative)
2. narrative - descriptive
3. imaginative
4. explanatory or expository.

(d) Kincaid[5] who, in 1953, also investigated the effects of different topics on writing and concluded that the poor writer's performance varied significantly according to the topic but that this was not the case with better writers. Rosen challenged this conclusion on the grounds that the differences between topics were 'extraordinarily narrow.'

The Secondary Schools Examination Council, reporting in 1964 on the examining of English Language had this to say of composition topics -

> 'There is not sufficient recognition of the fact that some are more difficult than others and require a different type of skill.'[5]

(b) The topics selected for the present investigation

From the research cited above it could be concluded that allowing the sample to choose an essay topic might introduce an additional variable which would unnecessarily complicate the measure of proficiency in S.B.E. It was therefore decided to select only two topics which should each be designed to elicit the same kind of writing. The sample would therefore be guided by the topics to use the same range of grammatical structures in the essay written at the beginning of the test period and in that written at the end.

In addition it was felt that the topics chosen should, as far as possible be 'culture free' and within the experience of each subject. The language problems deriving from cultural differences have been discussed in Chapter 1. The topics chosen for this study were 'Myself', an autobiographical, narrative-descriptive essay and 'The College', also a narrative-descriptive essay. While it is recognised that some members of the sample might have been more familiar with the processes of self-examination and discussion than others who were more inhibited and unused to describing their own lives, it was felt that the former topic would at least enable all to write from their own experience. The latter topic was given at the end of the test period when the subjects had all been at least two terms in the college.

Care was taken in the phrasing of the instructions during administration of the tests to guide the sample in their interpretation of the topics, the aim being that they should include sections on the past, present and conditional future (see section (iii) below).

Rosen[1] stressed the impossibility of ensuring that all the subjects write in the designed category. The sample's treatment of the topics is shown in Table 20 which follows.

TABLE 20: THE TREATMENT OF THE ESSAY TEST TOPICS

		Essay subject related to topic narrative-descriptive in past, present, future	Essay subject related to topic narrative-descriptive	Essay subject vaguely related to topic
JAMAICAN	Myself	59	45	10
	College	49	60	5
GREEK/ TURKISH	Myself	30	30	5
	College	34	28	3
BRITISH	Myself	23	25	7
	College	25	30	0

Column 1 gives the number in each subsample who wrote essays related to the topic and who wrote in the past, present and conditional future. Column 2 gives the number who related their essays to the topic but who did not write in all three tense groups. Column 3 gives the number who only vaguely linked their writing to the topics.

It can be seen that although the majority of subjects treated the topic as they were intended to, many did not include writing in the past, present and future conditional tenses and a small number interpreted the topic itself in different ways from that intended, describing a single incident in their lives, for example, or telling a story based on the College. This factor was borne in mind when the subjects' essay test scores were compared.

(iii) Procedure

The first essay, 'Myself', was administered during the third week of the test period, after the sample had completed Tests 1 and 2 and the Manchester Reading Test. It was a group test and, as with Tests 1 and 2, had to be administered to small groups of the sample at a time.

The essay topic and instructions were given verbally. During test construction, consideration was given to the possibility of providing the sample with specially prepared sheets of paper on which to write their essays, with the topic and instructions printed at the top. This idea was rejected because it was considered that some subjects would be unnerved by formal test conditions which were an obvious departure from their normal classroom experience and that many of the sample would find it easier to understand verbal rather than written instructions, although this was only an untested supposition. It could be countered that part of the aim of the investigation was to focus on factors influencing the sample's performance under formal test conditions like those of the G.C.E. 'O' level English examination and that similar conditions would thus be more reliable. The research has wider considerations, however, related to the more general linguistic problems of West Indians in British society, such as their ability to produce written and spoken S.B.E. in an employment situation. Again, the College enters students for Mode 3 G.C.E. English examinations and for C.S.E., assessments of which are mainly based on written work completed under normal class conditions.

As with Tests 1 and 2, practical considerations did not allow the writer personally to administer the test to all the groups. The members of the English teaching staff involved were instructed to tell their groups to write an essay about themselves. They were to write about 'What they did in the past, what they were doing at that moment and what they would like to do in the future.' The subjects were told that they need not be completely

truthful if they were embarrassed to write about their own life but could introduce some fictional elements as well. Warnings were given that incorrect spelling and grammatical mistakes would 'lose them marks' in the assessment. Care was to be taken that all the subjects knew what they were required to do. Any questions on this were answered before they started writing and the instructions could be repeated any number of times. As far as possible, it was not to be a test of memory or ability to perform under test conditions but a test of their ability to produce written S.B.E. in as relaxed and unthreatening an atmosphere as possible. The only formal aspect of the test was the enforcement of the rule of silence. There was no time limit nor any specified number of words, although both subjects and staff tacitly assumed that the test would be completed during the lesson in which it was administered. This meant that in practice the essays were completed within 45 minutes.

(iv) The Scoring of the Essay Tests

(a) A Review of Scoring Methods and Previous Research Findings

There are many criteria which may be used in the scoring of written composition. Marks may be allocated on the basis of such attributes as sophistication and maturity of style, fluency, suitability and originality of content, organisation of ideas, structural and lexical accuracy.

Much attention has been focused on reliability, particularly where public examination marking is involved. Stephen Wiseman,[6] in 1949, discussed the relative methods of impression and analytical marking and concluded that there appeared to be little difference in reliability between the two but that general impression marking was quicker and 'more likely to yield valid results than will analytic methods.' He also concluded that 'The efficiency of markers should be judged primarily by their "self consistency".'

He cited the work of such investigators as Hartog and Rhodes[7] who conducted research into the consistency between different essay markers in the total mark and in the separate sections of the analytic marking scheme they used. They also investigated the differences which were apparent when ten examiners marked the same seventy five essays by general impression and by analytic method. They concluded that 'on the whole no greater precision of marking is obtained by details than by impression.'

Another investigation referred to was that of Cast[8] who compared four methods of marking, including analytical and impression marking. Twelve examiners marked forty scripts written by $14\frac{1}{2}$-$15\frac{1}{2}$ year old schoolgirls and analysis of variance and factor analysis showed that the analytical method was slightly superior to the impression method.

Wiseman's own predilection was for impression marking, prompted by his own experience of marking school essays by analytical methods and finding that the 'best' essay did not achieve the highest mark. As he observed, 'the total gestalt is more than the sum of the parts.' His conclusions in favour of this method were based on a study of the system used by Devon County Authority to mark the English compositions which formed a part of its 11+ selection programme, the system having been developed by R. K. Robertson who had preceded Wiseman as Chief Examiner to the County. Four independent markers were employed and the mark scale was numerical from 0 to 20. The final mark awarded was the aggregate of the four independent assessments. After three months a random sample of one tenth of the scripts was sent back to the markers and re-marked to measure the degree of 'self-consistency.' Results showed that the method was 'as reliable as the kinds of objective tests now in use, when reliability is measured as a mark-remark correlation.'

In 1951, Finlayson,[9] commenting on Wiseman's advocacy of the mark-remark correlation as a measure of reliability in essay marking, maintained

that the varying behaviour of the children writing the essays should be taken into account as well as the variability of the markers. Stating that 'any overall measure of essay reliability must be a test re-test correlation,' he conducted an experiment in which essay reliability was assessed by this means. A random sample of 197 primary school children wrote two essays in successive weeks on topics chosen from two parallel sets of four topics. The essays were marked independently by six markers, using Wiseman's instructions for impression marking. Two months later the essays were re-marked and a reliability coefficient obtained for four of the markers. The aggregate scores of the first team on the first essay were correlated with the aggregate scores of the second team on the second essay and a correlation of .786 obtained which is lower than the correlation obtained when only one essay per child was marked. Finlayson concluded that, taking into account the fluctuating performance of the children, this measure of essay reliability was a more valid measurement when combined with mark-remark correlation than when used alone.

In 1956 Wiseman[10] again investigated the concepts of reliability and validity in the use of essays for 11+ selection. He accepted Finlayson's criticism concerning marker consistency as the only criterion of essay reliability and repeated Finlayson's experiment using 11+ scripts and markers. School reports and school certificate results were obtained for 141 children (from an initial 10 per cent random sample of 248), who had taken the Devon County selection examination in 1943. For the 72 children who were attending grammar school an estimate of overall school attainment and of ability in written English was also obtained. Multiple correlation was carried out for five factors, total school certificate results, school certificate English language, school certificate English literature, teachers' 'overall' estimates and teachers' estimate of written English, with the criterion tests - essay, objective English, Arithmetic and

Intelligence tests. Results indicated generally that the inclusion of the essay in the selection test battery increased the multiple correlation. Wiseman gave a warning that over-emphasis of reliability could lead to the rejection of valid tests. Although objective tests were highly reliable they were not always valid, the use of a team of markers should render an essay test 'respectable' for reliability while 'its validity has been demonstrated under difficult conditions.'

Vernon and Millican[11] refer to Wiseman's and Finlayson's research and also cite the work of Ballard[12] who maintained that a student's performance may vary over a range equivalent to six mental years when writing essays on different topics. They report an investigation carried out in 1951 by lecturers in English from the 36 colleges which then comprised the London Institute of Education. The main concern was the methods used to assess essays which had been written by students with inadequate written or spoken English. Eight groups of twenty eight second-year students in non-graduate colleges, wrote on seven topics, one per fortnight. These were subsequently marked on a fifteen point scale by eight college lecturers and seven independent markers. Highly significant differences were found between the standards of the seven markers and between the average marks for essays on each topic. When the marks awarded to essays on different topics by different markers were compared the correlations were not significant. Vernon and Millican claim that 'a consistent English ability, recognizable by different examiners from different small samples of students' work, can barely be said to exist.' A battery of five objective tests was then administered to the same sample of 224 students and was found to be 'as diagnostic of general English writing ability as a single essay.' However, Vernon and Millican concluded that two independent markers assessing a wide range of students' essays could yield a 'writing ability factor', not wholly predicted by the objective tests.

W. H. King,[13] writing in 1955, notes various investigations into essay marking including the work of Wiseman and Finlayson, and discusses the effect of the examiner's 'personal appreciation of a "quality" of an essay,' that is the relative weight given to such factors as fluency, imagination, and topic relevance. He refers to attempts to formulate 'objective' marking schemes, apportioning marks for different factors such as 'quantity, quality and control of ideas,' spelling and grammar, and maintains -

> 'The assessment of the value of the essay for each section of the analytical scheme is itself an impressionistic mark except where allowance has to be made in a definite numerical scale for spelling and grammatical mistakes.'

He cites an investigation 'The meaning and marking of imaginative composition' by the London Association for the teaching of English, which indicated that the examiners differed in their interpretation of the marking scheme adopted and in their attitude towards the essay subject. The variation of performance due to choice of topic is also discussed and he gives the advantages of the 'continue the story' type of topic which should not restrict the child's ability to express himself freely yet by giving each child the same initial stimulus, does not involve a comparison of the marking of different topics.

J. D. Nisbet,[14] also writing in 1955, stresses the importance of validity and describes an investigation where objective test scores and the marks obtained from two methods of marking essays were compared three years later with estimates of success in secondary school for a random sample of 169 eleven-year-old children. Results indicated a satisfactorily high validity for the composition marks, measured by efficiency in predicting secondary school success. However, there was no statistical evidence that the predictive efficiency of a test battery would be improved by the inclusion of a composition.

The investigations of Wiseman, Finlayson, Vernon and Millican, King and Nisbet should be viewed in the light of the purpose of the composition tests they examined. This was to select suitable candidates for grammar school entry. Wiseman gives the 'instructions for marking essays' in the appendix to his article[6] and these begin -

> 'You are not asked to give a mark to the composition as a piece of English. You are asked on the evidence afforded by the composition to assess the ability of the candidate to profit by a secondary education. You are judging children, not essays.'

In 1963 Dennis Lawton[15] had a rather different purpose when he conducted research into the written language of twenty school boys from two contrasting London schools, a secondary modern school in a working class area and an independent fee-paying school in a middle class suburb. The sample were matched for verbal and non-verbal intelligence on the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale and Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices, and Lawton was concerned to investigate further Basil Bernstein's hypotheses concerning social class and language,[16] which his results in general supported. He therefore analysed the four compositions written by each boy in detail. An index of subordination was obtained by dividing the total number of subordinate clauses by the total of finite verbs and in addition the complexity of structure was examined using Loban's weighted Index of Subordination. He made a count of passive verbs, personal pronouns, adjectives, adverbs and vocabulary and obtained an assessment of the degree of abstraction and generalisation in the essays by using four examiners, working independently.

It is evident that the choice of scoring system may depend to a large extent on the purpose of the particular test investigation.

C. Gipps and E. Ewen[17] have examined the use of the 'minimal terminal unit' or 'T-Unit' developed by Kellog W. Hunt in America. The technique was used in the scoring of the open-ended writing and speaking tests

which form part of the recently developed N.F.E.R. battery of 'Tests of English Proficiency for Immigrant Children.' The aim of the essay tests in the battery is described by Gipps and Ewen as being -

> 'to test writing ability in a second language and, as such, is concerned primarily with the capacity for effective use of the second language to communicate in the medium of writing, rather than with the content or style of the communication itself.'

They continue to observe that the effectiveness of communication depends largely on intelligibility which involves a 'minimal degree' of grammatical accuracy together with an '<u>optimum</u> use...of the structural features of a language...to maximize the information expressed in a given number of words.' It was therefore 'felt to be appropriate to include in the scoring system some measure of structural complexity.'

Unlike Lawton[15] they rejected the use of a subordination index as the N.F.E.R. battery is intended for young children and it was felt that the use of sentences was often unsuitable where the analysis of their writing was concerned. Children tended to use minimal punctuation and so the precise limits of their sentences were difficult to define. They often strung main clauses together by a series of the conjunction 'and' which could distort the measure if sentence length were a criterion for judgment.

Hunt[18] developed the 'T-Unit' in 1965 when he analysed one thousand word samples of free composition written by nine boys and nine girls of 'average intelligence' (as measured by the California Test of Mental Maturity) from three age-groups, eight, twelve and sixteen year-olds. The samples were part of normal class work. His analysis showed that the average sentence length for each group increased with age but as there were many individual differences he felt that punctuated sentence length was not likely to be a satisfactory index of linguistic maturity for young children of only average ability. His results had also shown that

the subordination index rose with age and he therefore decided to develop a measure which would combine clause length and subordination. This was the 'T-Unit' which he defined as 'one complete main clause and any other clauses dependent upon it.' Each T-Unit could contain one and only one complete main clause. The more complex writing had larger T-Units.

In the pilot stage of the N.F.E.R. tests, samples of Asian and West Indian children with up to five and a half years' schooling in Britain wrote essays on one of three subjects - 'My Family', 'Coming to Britain' or 'The Fire'. All the writing to the last complete T-Unit after one hundred words was divided into T-Units. Parts described by Gipps and Ewen as 'totally unintelligible tracts' were crossed out. The number of words divided by the number of T-Units yielded the average T-Unit length.

In addition a 'scale of general intelligibility' which it was recognised would be 'inevitably subjective to some degree' was applied to each T-Unit as follows -

0 - completely unintelligible
1 - partially intelligible
2 - completely intelligible.

A bonus mark was given for a T-Unit that was considered to be completely accurate, 'minor' spelling mistakes being ignored. Gipps and Ewen define a 'minor' spelling mistake as one which 'did not interfere with intelligibility.'

They decided not to use the criterion of grammatical and/or lexical accuracy as they felt that this would involve a lengthy marking procedure, be impressionistic, or as they describe it 'highly unreliable global judgments.' In addition an error count might in their opinion create a 'distorted' view of writing ability where a child attempting more complex structures might make more mistakes than a less adventurous one. Their chosen procedure gave an inter-marker reliability of 0.98 for the

total score of the essay which they felt 'could be said to deal effectively with those aspects of a piece of writing which reflect most clearly the development of writing skill in a second language.'

The Asian and West Indian sample had been divided on the basis of length of stay in Britain, rather than on the basis of age. The results indicated that for the Asian sample the mean T-Unit length of writing increased with length of stay in the country. This was not so with the West Indian sample. Gipps and Ewen felt that this might be because this sample 'could not be viewed as true second language learners,' and that the sample's results might be better analysed by age rather than by length of schooling in this country. They did, however, stress that the findings were a by-product of test development and should therefore be viewed with caution.

Rosen[1] compared three methods of marking, including the T-Unit, in his study of the effects of choice of topic on the standard of written composition which is described in section (ii) above.

The five hundred compositions were assessed in three ways by 'multiple marking', 'Minimal terminable Unit (T-Unit)', and 'mean word length.' Scripts were marked, in random order, by nine impression markers and the aggregate marks recorded. They were then analysed by the method used by Gipps and Ewen, described above, to calculate the Minimal T-Unit and finally the mean word length of each set of compositions per subject was calculated.

One of Rosen's hypotheses was that 'composition sets which had higher mean multiple marks would also be the ones which had longer T-Units.' However, his findings revealed very low positive correlation between T-Unit length and multiple marks and in two cases negative correlation. His investigation did not show that the higher the mark scores on composition the higher the mean T-Unit length, nor <u>vice versa</u>.

His sample included twenty four subjects from a 'very low ability group' who were considered by their teachers to be below the level of G.C.E. 'O' level and C.S.E. Their results were similar to the main sample regarding the relationship of T-Units and multiple marking. He therefore felt the T-Unit was a 'very blunt instrument for deciding the maturity of individuals.' Some of the very low ability group boys produced mean T-Units as high as 23.27 and 24.66 and the 'less-mature' sentences could produce long T-Units. He concluded that -

> 'The claim that mean T-Unit length is a new and highly sensitive index of writing ability was refuted by this study.'

(b) The Essay Scoring System used in the Present Investigation

From the above review of research into essay scoring methods it is evident that the field is a highly controversial one fraught with unsolved problems concerning the achievement of reliable and objective measures. The choice of method would seem to depend largely on the aim of the assessment. Gipps and Ewen[17] were concerned to measure the effectiveness of communication of the pupils tested by the N.F.E.R. battery. This they saw as dependent on intelligibility which they felt involved only a 'minimal degree' of grammatical accuracy, and so they did not employ error counts in their marking of the essays. The aim of the present investigation, however, is a comparison of the progress made by Jamaican, British and Greek and Turkish students in a Further Education College in improving their command of written and spoken S.B.E. The writer, therefore, has chosen to measure proficiency in S.B.E. by the criterion of structural and lexical accuracy.

The main concern stated by all the subjects in the sample was to obtain passes in G.C.E. 'O' level English Language, grudgingly accepting a C.S.E. pass as an alternative. It is the writer's contention that a pass in 'O' level examinations depends to a large extent on the ability

to write accurate S.B.E. A certain degree of maturity and sophistication of expression is also needed. Candidates must be able to communicate their ideas effectively, to write compositions in which the topic is followed and ideas are well organised. However, it is contended that a student who does not command a basic knowledge of the syntax of S.B.E. would find it difficult to communicate in English even were he able to organise his ideas effectively. Thus many students who are mother-tongue-speakers of English find it difficult to pass the 'O' level English Language examination. How much more difficult then for one for whom English is a foreign or second language or dialect? Even a student who can communicate efficiently in spoken English and whose written English is comprehensible may fail the examination because of loss of marks through structural and lexical errors even where they do not hinder communication. For example, a West Indian who writes 'He have to stay' or 'She go to work last week' or 'The children them cry', will lose marks in an English examination even though there is no breakdown in communication.

Many of the female students in the sample wished to become secretaries or shorthand typists, but they cannot pass their commercial examinations or obtain the jobs they want if their written English contains many spelling errors and structural deviations from S.B.E. Employers judge written English solely by the criteria of structural and lexical accuracy. To achieve most of their ambitions in British society the students have to learn to write accurate S.B.E. It was for this reason that it was decided to assess the essay tests by the criterion of accuracy.

(c) Procedure

Rather than make overall impression assessments of accuracy it was decided to use an analytical approach and count the number of errors. This decision was based on practical considerations. Wiseman[6] used four independent markers, Rosen[1] used nine impression ones. The writer felt

reluctant to ask colleagues to perform the arduous task of assessing 468 essays. In a Further Education College where students are preparing for examinations in one hectic year it was considered sufficient that colleagues had been willing to co-operate in the administration of the twelve tests in the total battery. Even had they been asked and had agreed to grade the essays, shortage of time would have forced them to rush the task and therefore invalidate the results.

The essays were untimed and varied in length from under one hundred to over two thousand words so it was not possible to perform a straightforward error count. It was therefore decided to establish cut off points at fifty-word intervals between fifty and four hundred words and to find the percentage of the errors per length. Since length can be regarded as one indication of fluency it was decided to compare the language subgroups on this variable. Results obtained from this measure had to be treated with great caution as there were many factors affecting each subject's performance in essay length. Some members of the sample appeared resentful at having to do the tests and although they did not go so far as to refuse, it was evident that they would write as little as they thought necessary.

It was decided to make two separate 'error' counts, one structural and one lexical, to include spelling. Where a word combined a structural and lexical error it would be counted twice. For example, the sentence 'I had whent to college last week.' represents both a structural and a spelling error.

Punctuation, apart from the use of apostrophes, was not marked as it was felt that this required grading by impression.

Structural errors included incorrect use of verb tenses and inflections, articles, prepositions and other 'usage' words, and apostrophes. A list of examples of the subjects' errors is included in Appendix II. Lexical

errors included wrong spelling and incorrect use of lexical words. Spelling errors were only counted as wrong once. Misspelling of place names and other proper nouns was allowed because of the difficulty in checking Greek, Turkish and Jamaican town and school names, etc. Standard abbreviations like 'exam.' and 'Tech.' were also allowed.

The problem of the effect of style on accuracy was considered. Would the subject who attempted complicated constructions, for example those with a high degree of subordination or embedding, make a larger number of errors? How could one compare essays by the criterion of technical accuracy if the varying degrees of sophistication were not also measured?

Two measures of maturity of style were considered. The first was a system of allocation of grades on a five point rating scale for such attributes as complexity of structure, degree of abstraction, creativity and imagination. This was rejected as it would have necessitated subjective, impression marking and therefore would have involved more than one marker.

The second was the use of the Minimal Terminable Unit described above. Rosen[1] expressed grave doubts about its reliability. His findings showed very low positive correlation between T-Unit length and the multiple marks allocated to 500 compositions by four independent impression markers. In two cases there was negative correlation. Sentences which he considered 'less-mature' had occasionally produced long T-Units.

Once structural and lexical error counts had been made for the essay tests in the present investigation, it was decided to calculate the mean T-Unit length of thirty essays on the topic 'Myself'. The essays selected were the five with the lowest percentage of errors and the five with the highest in each of the three language groups. T-Unit length was calculated for the first hundred words of each essay as in the marking of the N.F.E.R. test.[11] Results are shown in Tables 32 and 33 in Chapter 7, Section 1 (ii). They support the writer's decision not to employ the Minimal Terminable Unit

measure as it is evident that in the samples examined there is no clear relationship between % error and T-Unit length. On comparing essays which had the same measured T-Unit length and those which had different T-Unit lengths the writer was not satisfied that the T-Unit would be an effective measure of complexity of structure or maturity of style for the purposes of this investigation. Only thirty essays were studied but the problems revealed were considered sufficient grounds, taken with Rosen's criticisms, to reject the method.

It was therefore decided not to include a measure of 'maturity' or sophistication of style. It is recognised that an error count without a measure of complexity of structure used may yield a distorted picture. The writer, however, knows of no measure of complexity which is considered reliable and which would be suitable for the purposes of the present investigation.

Section 3: The Picture Test, Oral and Written

(i) The Aim of the Picture Test

The Picture test was devised as a means of comparing the sample's ability to produce acceptable written with their ability to produce acceptable oral S.B.E.

(ii) The Selection of the Picture

The selected picture was from the Humanities Project Poverty Pack (No. 2595) which at the time of the testing was new and unfamiliar to the sample. A copy can be found in Appendix VIII. It showed the interior of a room in the Gorbals, Glasgow 1948. The family depicted were poor, a woman with a baby and four children, one lying on a bed in a curtained corner of the room. There was an assortment of household articles on and under a table and on a sideboard, a radio, and two pictures on the wall.

It was felt that the picture would contain meaning for the whole sample. Unfortunately it was not multiracial, the family were white, and

it would therefore be open to the criticism that it was white biased. However, the writer felt that class was a more dominant cultural feature than colour and it was considered that all the subjects in the sample, who could roughly be described as 'working class' (see Chapter 4) would have seen, if not known, poverty in their own country, would be aware of its nature and have something to say about it. This was found to be the case, no subject hesitated when faced with the picture, all had relevant comments to make.

(iii) Procedure

Each subject was tested individually by the writer. Although it is appreciated that if the Jamaican subjects had been tested by a Jamaican the responses could have been different, the writer's concern was to test the whole sample's ability to use S.B.E. in an 'S.B.E. code fixed context' as against a Jamaican context. The kind of context considered was that in which they would find themselves when being interviewed for a job by an employer who spoke a form of S.B.E.

The oral testing was done in private, either in a separate room, empty corridor or, where this could not be arranged, in a screened-off corner of a classroom away from the other occupants of the room.

In most cases the subjects came to the writer voluntarily during their lunch break or after afternoon classes. In a few cases they were extracted from English lessons. All the sample were tested during weeks four or five of the test period. They completed the reading test (Section 4 below) at the same time. An open-reel tape recorder was used to record the 1972-3 sample and a cassette tape recorder for the 1973-4 sample. It was not considered that any difference in quality of recording would matter as the test was to detect structural and lexical deviation from S.B.E. not pronunciation or accent. The choice of both tape recorders was dictated by practical considerations at the time of testing.

During the test the subject was given a copy of the picture to study for as long as he wished, having been told that he would be required to talk about 'What he could see in the picture; what the people were doing; what he thought about the picture.' When the subject indicated that he was ready the microphone was switched on and he gave his name and proceeded to talk about the picture. An informal, relaxed atmosphere was aimed at and if the subject appeared shy or made only a few comments the writer pointed at things and encouraged him with nods, smiles, etc.

After the subject had finished talking about the picture he was asked to write about it in any way he felt was appropriate. No indication of length was given, nor was he timed.

(iv) The Scoring of the Picture Test

As with the scoring of the two essay tests the number of words spoken and written were counted to the nearest 50, within the range 50 to 400.

The subjects' performance on the oral and written parts of the test were to be compared and so it was decided to ignore spelling errors in the written form and to count only structural and lexical deviations from S.B.E. Different styles are accepted in spoken more than in written English and occasionally different grammar is accepted as S.B.E. More redundancy is permissible in spoken English, repetition is often not noticed; in the written form a word repeated may be counted as an error, as, for example, in 'she looked at the the table.'

It was therefore decided to ignore any repetition mistakes of this type in the written picture description so that the subject's number of errors could be directly compared with the number in the oral description. Similarly, incomplete sentences, a lack of finite verbs was allowed.

Consequently the scoring consisted in both the oral and written descriptions of a word count and a count of all deviations from S.B.E. both structural and lexical, apart from spelling and repetition.

Section 4: The Reading Test

(i) The Aim of the Reading Test

The writer had observed while teaching English to Jamaican students that many of their deviations from S.B.E. were in the area of verb inflexions and concord where Standard Jamaican English (S.J.E.) as well as Jamaican dialect differed from S.B.E. There is much controversy concerning the nature of acceptable S.J.E. and there is a more detailed discussion of this in Chapter 1, Section 2 (iii).

Where, for example, S.B.E. would require the verb inflexions:-

he goes, they go / he has, they have

S.J.E. might require:-

he go, they goes / he have, they has.

It was the writer's contention that a Jamaican student who habitually used the latter form would actually convert written material which used the former concord into the latter concord when reading. In other words he would not 'see' the S.B.E. form. The Reading test was therefore devised to test the hypothesis that Jamaicans would 'read' certain S.B.E. structures incorrectly whereas Greek and Turkish students would make only pronunciation errors.

(ii) The Construction of the Reading Test

A short passage of 230 words was written by the writer. It described the working day of an office typist and it was hoped the content would be reasonably familiar for all the subjects within the sample. It was written in the Simple Present tense with 23 third person single inflexions, including three of 'has' and four third person plural.

(iii) Procedure

The test was administered individually at the same time as the oral Picture test and under the same conditions.

The subjects were required to read the passage into the microphone without first studying it. They were given no indication of the purpose of the test although they were told that they would not be timed. Where a subject hesitated or realised he had made an error in pronunciation he was told not to worry, just to carry on. As with the Picture test, the writer aimed at a relaxed, informal atmosphere.

(iv) The Scoring of the Reading Test

A count of all errors connected with the 27 Present tense inflexions was made. Other errors were not scored; errors in pronunciation which did not alter the sense of the words were ignored.

Section 5: The Manchester Reading Test

(i) The reason for including the Manchester Reading Test in the English Test Battery

A reading comprehension test was required to test the hypothesis that the Jamaican subsample would have as much difficulty as the Greek/Turkish subsample in understanding a reading passage in S.B.E.

The writer considered the construction of cloze tests[1] using reading passages from such sources as the S.R.A. box materials. Cloze procedure consists of rules for constructing, administering and scoring cloze tests. Some words of a passage are deleted in an objective, mechanical way and blanks are inserted. J. Anderson,[1] for example, working in Papua and New Guinea, deleted every fifth word, replacing each with a blank of the same length. The degree of comprehension of the written materials over which the cloze tests have been constructed is determined from the cloze scores.

However, since the present investigation was concerned with the ability of Jamaican and Greek/Turkish students to communicate in S.B.E., to take examinations and be employed in British society, a reading comprehension test was needed which had been designed primarily for use with speakers of English as a mother tongue. It was therefore decided not to construct cloze tests specifically for the investigation but to use a test which had been

designed for and widely used in English Secondary schools. The Manchester Reading Tests (Senior) were selected. According to the Manual they are felt to be appropriate for the 14-15 year level in the 'Secondary Modern' school and for the 13+ level upwards in the 'Secondary Grammar' school. Standardization of the test was based upon the scores of 6,679 boys and 6,763 girls, aged 14.1 to 15.0 on the day of the test; children in special and independent or direct grant schools were excluded. The split-half reliability of the test, corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula, is given as .954; reliability from internal consistency (Kuder-Richardson formula) as .940; test re-test correlation (two months' interval) as .939.

(ii) Procedure

As it was decided by the English Department to use the Manchester Reading Test as one means of streaming the new college intake of students, the test was administered to groups of about twenty-five students at a time, during enrolment week. Some of the sample used in the present investigation were amongst those students. Those who were not, completed the test during the first week of the term, which was also the first week of the test period.

In both cases the test was administered according to the procedure laid down in the instruction Manual, except that the instruction to use pencil only was not followed. The timing was strictly adhered to, subjects being allowed precisely 45 minutes.

(iii) The marking of the Manchester Reading Test

The scripts were marked once by the writer and once by another member of the English Department; the official marking key was followed faithfully.

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CHAPTER 6

THE INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

PART I : TESTS

Section 1: Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices (1956) and the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale

There has been concern about the use made of 'intelligence' tests to assess the educational potential of immigrant children in British schools, particularly their use as a means of selection for admission to schools for the educationally sub-normal.[1]

A verbal and non-verbal standardised intelligence test were required to test the hypotheses details of which are given in Chapter 3, Section 1 (iii).

Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices have been widely used in schools and also in various investigations concerning the education of immigrants where a 'culture fair' intelligence test has been required.[2] The writer felt that there might be a tendency for some teachers to accept the results of tests, such as the Progressive Matrices and the I.P.A.T. Culture Free Test as valid measures of 'intelligence' and/or educational potential for immigrant samples although they might reject other intelligence tests, particularly verbal reasoning ones, as unreliable. It was therefore decided to use Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices in the present investigation and as the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale has been widely used in conjunction with them, the writer decided to use it as the test of verbal intelligence.

(i) A report of previous research findings

In the 1958 Guide to the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale, Raven describes the Scale as being to 'record a person's present recall of acquired informa-

tion and ability for verbal communication.' By using it with the Progressive Matrices he suggests that a 'clear distinction can be made between a person's capacity for rational judgment and his present ability to recall verbal information.' He claims that the Scale is chiefly a test of literacy and 'indicates with some accuracy a person's present ability to express his ideas orally or in writing, and even his ability to read and spell.'

Raven indicates that one should expect, in the majority of cases, that a person's score on the Standard Progressive Matrices and the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale will be at similar points on the scale. He suggests that a vocabulary grading lower than a Matrices grading 'arises when a person has not received or for some reason has not been able to acquire, the general information and command of the English language his intellectual capacity warrants.' Regarding the Matrices, in the 1960 Guide Raven unjustifiably claims that 'a person's total score provides an index of his intellectual capacity, whatever his nationality or education,' and observes that 'for comparative purposes the standard scale is now used internationally and no general revision of it has yet appeared necessary.'

In 1958, in his detailed review of the 1938 edition of the Progressive Matrices Burke[3] discusses the notion of 'culture fairness' with regard to Raven's Test and concludes that -

> 'The evidence from these[4] is not entirely clear that Progressive Matrices (1938) can be described as a culture-free test. Westby[5] has expressed his doubts. Bradford[6] has also expressed doubt about the independence of the test of schooling. Perhaps it is as nearly culture-free as any other available test is or can be; conclusive evidence on the point is lacking.'

Alleyne (1962)[7] refers to a study by Morgan[8] in which it was found that of three non-verbal tests, the Progressive Matrices were least influenced by a language handicap. Alleyne tested a monoglot and a bilingual sample of children in a London Junior School who had been matched for age, sex and socio-economic status. The sample included Greek and Turkish Cypriot, Polish, Italian, Hungarian, Yugoslavian, French, Maltese,

Spanish and Indian. The tests used were the N.F.E.R. Primary Verbal Test 1, a battery of English/Arithmetic Attainment Tests compiled by L. C. D. Kemp and Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices (1938). Statistical analysis indicated that the monoglots were 'consistently superior' to the bilinguals on all the tests but that the least significant difference was between scores on Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices.

In 1967 Ashby, Morrison and Butcher[9] conducted a survey into the abilities and attainments of Indian and Pakistani school children in Glasgow whose length of stay in Britain varied. The sample were 'assessed for ability using four objective tests.' These were a Glasgow Verbal Reasoning test, the Goodenough 'Draw-a-man' test and Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices. The latter two are referred to by Ashby, Morrison and Butcher as 'co-called culture-free' tests. The results, however, showed a positive relationship between the mean scores on all the tests including those two, and length of stay. One of Ashby et al's conclusions was that 'no evidence is found for the claim sometimes made that the Matrices and the 'Draw-a-man' are relatively culture-free tests.'

Trevor Burgin and Patricia Edson,[10] writing in 1967, describe two experiments conducted in Huddersfield Primary schools, in which attempts were made to assess the educational potential of 'immigrant' pupils. In 1961 a sample of children, newly arrived in England, were assessed using Raven's Coloured Progressive Matrices and the Goodenough 'Draw-a-man' test. Results showed an 'almost uniformly low score' at or below the fifth percentile on the Matrices and an I.Q. below 70 on the Goodenough test. As these scores could be viewed as an indication of educational subnormality, it was decided to conduct a further investigation.

In 1962 a more detailed study was undertaken at Spring Grove County Primary School. Raven's Coloured Progressive Matrices and the Goodenough 'Draw-a-man' test were again administered, this time by the headmaster of

Spring Grove and by an educational psychologist, to a sample of immigrant pupils from India and Pakistan, all of whom were recent arrivals. The results suggested that 'as the non-English-speaking child moves nearer to becoming integrated, his measurable level of non-verbal intelligence changes from that of an educationally subnormal child, to that of dull or low average intelligence, thus indicating the inaccuracy of the test when applied to children newly arrived.' Burgin and Edson observe that the 'generally low results' on the Matrices might suggest that they involve too high a degree of perceptual maturity. In addition, most of the children in the sample had not been accustomed to seeing regular coloured geometrical patterns in their home environment and this might have depressed their scores. Burgin and Edson also note that there did not appear to be a very close relationship between the measures of non-verbal ability and educational ability as measured by the teachers in the school.

P. E. Vernon[11] refers to two studies in parts of Africa, where Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices were readministered to the same samples and rises in scores obtained. In 1951 Ombredane[12] obtained large score increases when the Matrices were given a second and a third time to a sample in the Congo. He concluded that the results of initial tests tend to be 'unreliable' with 'unsophisticated subjects.' Jahoda,[13] in 1956, retested a sample of 317 West African schoolboys on Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices at the end of their elementary education and during three successive weeks. A mean overall rise of 65 points was obtained. Vernon notes that this could well be an underestimation as many of the boys scored lower on the third than on the second attempt, probably through boredom.

Bhatnagar[14] discusses the merits of Raven's Progressive Matrices which he used in his investigation into the adjustment of immigrant school children. He felt that a non-verbal intelligence test could be expected to produce less variance between English and immigrant children than a

test of verbal ability and states that the Progressive Matrices 'is one of the most extensively used non-verbal intelligence tests in all parts of the globe.' He refers to various previous investigations -

(a) Bieshueval[15] who, in 1962, concluded that the Progressive Matrices were 'relatively free of educational content', and therefore the most suitable intelligence test available for use with African children.

(b) Vernon[16] in 1965 considered the test to be 'one of the best general-ability predictors' in the West Indian situation.

(c) Venables[17] found in 1963 that the test correlated highly with the examination results of Day Release students in Britain.

(d) McArthur and Elley[18] in 1963 used nine 'culture-reduced' tests in their attempt to measure the educational potential of Canadian Indian children and concluded, 'Raven's Progressive Matrices proved the most useful test in the battery since it showed high 'g' loading, consistent and minimal relationship with socio-economic status, no evidence of culture bias by items and moderate correlation with school marks.'

(e) Orme[19] in 1961 observed that 'over many years the standard Matrices Test has proved to be one of the most homogeneous measures of what is called 'g' factor, fluid ability, non-verbal performance and possibly Hebb's intelligence A.'

MacFarlane Smith[20] describes the search for a 'culture-fair' test and discusses the claims of Raven's Progressive Matrices and the I.P.A.T. Culture Free Intelligence Scale. The latter, devised by Cattell, is, according to MacFarlane Smith, based on the principle that 'the items should involve complex relations among data which are familiar to people in all parts of the world and which could be presented with the minimum use of language.'

Cattell considered that pictorial tests were not culture-free and so used shapes which were not intended to represent objects 'distinctive of any culture.' MacFarlane Smith refers to Cattell's later writings[21] where he claims that 'culture fair' and traditional intelligence tests measure two correlated components of the general factor of intelligence. These components he calls fluid and crystallised intelligence.

It is fluid intelligence that some British psychologists regard as corresponding to the general factor of intelligence 'g', according to MacFarlane Smith, and it is this, he argues, that the Progressive Matrices were designed to measure. Raven, in the 1960 R.P.M. Guide states that the Matrices have been found to have a 'g' saturation of 0.82. MacFarlane further observes that Vernon[11] has indicated that one could regard Cattell's 'fluid intelligence' as 'g with slight admixture of spatial ability', but that Cattell has denied that fluid intelligence is essentially the same as spatial ability. (k:m) MacFarlane Smith suggests that spatial tests 'have a strong claim to be considered culture-free.'

Several investigators, including some of those cited above, have therefore employed Raven's Progressive Matrices on account of their supposed culture-fairness.

Lawton[22] refers to one of Basil Bernstein's studies[23] where he used Raven's Progressive Matrices and the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale in his investigation into the relationship between language, social class and performance on non-verbal intelligence tests. Bernstein predicted that the language scores in the working class group in his sample would be severely depressed in relation to the scores in the higher ranges of non-verbal intelligence tests. His sample consisted of 61 boys, 15 to 18 years old, of working-class background, and 45 boys of the same age from a public school. The mean raw scores on Raven's Progressive Matrices were 47.4 for the working-class group and 51.4 for the public school group and on the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale they were 41.9 for the working-class and 60.2 for the public school group. Lawton observes that if the scores were converted to I.Q. equivalents it would mean that the public school boys were 8 to 10 I.Q. points superior on the Progressive Matrices but 23 to 24 I.Q. points superior on the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale.

Among the conclusions drawn by Bernstein were (a) that a different relationship existed between verbal and non-verbal I.Q. for the two social groups, and (b) that a score on a verbal test was a powerful indication of educational performance as well as 'ability.'

Lawton himself used the Progressive Matrices and the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale in his investigation in 1963,[24] when he matched his sample for verbal and non-verbal intelligence on the tests.

(ii) Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices 1956

Raven in the 1960 R.P.M. Guide describes the Standard Progressive Matrices, Sets A, B, C, D and E as -

> 'a test of a person's capacity at the time of the test to apprehend meaningless figures presented for his observation, see the relations between them, conceive the nature of the figure completing each system of relations presented and, by so doing, develop a systematic method of reasoning.'

The Progressive Matrices is a spatial test consisting of 60 items, arranged in five sets of twelve. Each item comprises a pattern from which a part has been removed. In the first three sets a choice of six alternative 'parts' is provided in each item from which one must be selected to fill the 'gap'; in the last two sets there is a choice of eight alternatives.

According to Burke[3] each set, A to E, develops a different theme, namely, (a) continuous patterns, (b) analogies betwwen pairs of figures, (c) progressive alterations of patterns, (d) permutations of figures, and (e) resolution of figures into constituent parts. The first problem in each set is intended to be self-evident and the succeeding eleven problems are progressively more difficult.

The 1960 R.P.M. Manual gives figures of rest-retest reliability as being from 0.83 to 0.93 depending on age group. Burke[3] reviews the literature on the test's reliability and quotes (a) Keir[25] (1949) 'The figures obtained raise serious questions in regard to the reliability and efficiency of the test as a whole, and the value and arrangement of several

items. These questions require to be satisfactorily solved before it can be accepted as a serviceable school test.' (b) Sinha[26] (1951) who concluded, 'although the test was decidedly promising in its general lines, it would be premature to accept it in its present form, when there was so much room for obvious improvement.'

Burke concludes that 'the evidence is not convincing that the test Progressive Matrices (1938) has the reliability at the various age levels that is necessary and desirable for important decisions about an individual. Test-retest reliability coefficients with normal adults in their late teens or early 20's range from .93 to .79. Pertinent reliability coefficients in careful studies with children range from .88 to .71.'

With reference to these criticisms it should be borne in mind that they refer to the 1938 version of the test and that the 1956 version was used in the present investigation. In this the order of items and of wrong choices has been altered. In the 1960 Guide, however, Raven states that, apart from rearrangement of the alternative answers, 'no other change has been made in the Scale and in no case has the original position of the correct solution to a problem been changed.' It is considered that this revision is unlikely to have invalidated most of Burke's criticisms regarding validity. Burke concludes that 'The evidence is not convincing that Progressive Matrices (1938) has validity as a pure measure of the spatial construct of g.'

(iii) <u>The Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale 1948, Form 2, Junior</u>

In the 1958 Guide to the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale Raven states that Forms 1 and 2 Junior are suitable for the 11 to 14 years age range. Although the sample used in the present investigation are aged 16 to 17 years it was felt that the Senior forms would not discriminate sufficiently at the lower levels.

The Form 1 Junior consists of two sets of 33 lexical (as against structural) words, the eleven most difficult words from the Standard Scale having been omitted. In the first set a choice of synonym has to be made for each word from six alternatives, the correct alternative to be underlined. In the second set a definition of each word has to be written.

(iv) Procedure

Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices and the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale were both administered in the fifth week of the test period. For the reasons given in Chapter 5 concerning the administration of the English Test Battery, it was not possible to bring the subjects together into large groups for the test, nor for the writer personally to administer the test to all groups. As with the English Test Battery the subjects completed the test in their English teaching groups and the teachers in the English Department administered the tests. Not all the groups completed the tests on the same day as they were timetabled for English at different times. The possibility that one subject might inform another of the words in the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale was recognised but the writer knew of no way to avoid this. The only safeguard was the unlikelihood of subjects remembering the words and the fact that friendships tended to be formed within English groups and inter-group discussion regarding the test (which was not seen by the subjects as having any great significance regarding their college career), was unlikely.

Any subject who was absent when the test was administered was required to complete it as soon as was practicable after his return. All subjects had taken the test by the end of the sixth week.

The Progressive Matrices and the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale were completed during the same test session. The former was administered first and when subjects had completed it they went on to the latter.

As with the English Test Battery, the administration of the test to the groups on different days of the week and at different times, introduced additional variables, such as the degree of fatigue and hunger which might be expected to vary according to whether the test was completed early or late in the morning or afternoon session. This, however, could not be avoided.

(v) The Scoring of the Standard Progressive Matrices and the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale

In a recent study conducted by the Research and Statistics Group of the I.L.E.A. a group of 1,666 children from predominantly Educational Priority Area schools was given Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices and another group, numbering 2,728, Raven's Coloured Progressive Matrices. When the raw scores were arranged in the percentile ranks given in the Manual there was an unexpectedly high negative skew in the distribution of scores.

The I.L.E.A. distribution for the Standard Progressive Matrices is given in Table 21 below.

TABLE 21: RAVEN'S STANDARD PROGRESSIVE MATRICES: I.L.E.A. DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES

GRADE	STANDARD PROGRESSIVE MATRICES %
I	15.85
II	32.77
III	34.33
IV	9.60
V	3.00
Scores below the percentile levels given	4.44
NUMBER	1,666

According to Raven's norm the expected distribution was - Grade I - 5%; Grade II - 20%; Grade III - 50%; Grade IV - 20%; Grade V - 5%.

Consequently the I.L.E.A. Research and Statistics Group stated that Raven's rankings were out of date or that the samples originally tested were not representative and they rearranged the scores in four broad categories to yield an even distribution within the schools. It should be borne in mind, however, that the I.L.E.A. were not using a norming population, but a sample drawn from children in an Educational Priority Area.

The distribution of scores in the present investigation, using the grades corresponding to Raven's percentile rankings, is shown in Table 22 below. As the adolescents in the sample were aged 16 to 17 years two distributions were plotted using the percentile rankings for the 14 and for the 20 year group.

TABLE 22: RAVEN'S STANDARD PROGRESSIVE MATRICES
DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES IN PRESENT INVESTIGATION

14 years					
JAMAICAN		GREEK/TURKISH		U.K.	
Grade	Percentage	Grade	Percentage	Grade	Percentage
I	7.01	I	15.38	I	25.45
II	13.10	II	32.30	II	27.27
III	43.85	III	43.07	III	34.55
IV	25.43	IV	7.69	IV	10.90
V	10.52	V	1.53	V	1.80
20 years					
Grade	Percentage	Grade	Percentage	Grade	Percentage
I	5.26	I	4.61	I	10.90
II	13.10	II	29.46	II	34.55
III	50.87	III	58.46	III	45.45
IV	20.17	IV	6.15	IV	7.27
V	10.52	V	1.53	V	1.80
No.	114		65		55

As can be seen from Table 22, both distributions are skewed for all three subsamples; a fairly high negative skew, although not as high as in the I.L.E.A. survey, for the U.K. and Greek and Turkish groups and a positive skew for the Jamaican group.

The raw scores as against percentile grades were used when the data for the present investigation was analysed.

Section 2: The Listening Discrimination Tests

(i) The aim of the Listening Discrimination Tests

The writer considered that for both non-mother-tongue speakers of English and speakers of a non-standard dialect, success in increasing command of S.B.E. would depend partly on the ability to distinguish between the various sound patterns of Standard English. A Jamaican, for example, would need to hear the final 'd' in the regular simple past tense, (play-ed, work-ed), and the final 's' in the simple present third person singular inflexion (he play-s, walk-s), to acknowledge their existence, before he could be expected to learn to reproduce them in the oral or written form. It is felt that many Jamaicans do not hear the S.B.E. form of those structures which have different forms in S.J.E.[1] and its dialects and that this interference from their first dialect is at least as great as the interference a non-mother-tongue speaker of English experiences from his first language.

The Listening Discrimination Tests were constructed by the writer herself. Various tests of listening skills are available but the writer could not find one which it was considered would serve to test the hypotheses outlined in Chapter 3, Section 1 (iii).

Most research into listening skills within the field of English teaching and applied linguistics concentrates on comprehension. Andrew Wilkinson[2] has outlined the history of research into listening comprehension which he considers to be parallel to reading comprehension, a

measure of the understanding of meaning. He refers to the work of J. I. Brown[3] in 1949 and Nichols[4] in 1948 who constructed a taxonomy of listening skills which distinguished between receptive and reflexive listening and cites Pratt's[5] definition of the two concepts -

> 'Receptive skills: Skills primarily associated with accuracy in listening: (a) ability to keep related details in mind, (b) ability to observe a single detail, (c) ability to remember a series of details, (d) ability to follow oral directions; Reflective skills: (a) ability to use contextual clues, (b) ability to recognise organizational elements, (c) ability to select main ideas as opposed to subordinate ideas and details, (d) ability to recognize the relationship between main ideas and subordinate ideas that support them, (e) ability to draw justifiable inferences.'

This definition appears to preclude recognition of phonemes, of uncontextualised words and the 'Listening Comprehension Test' (1953), designed by J. I. Brown and G. R. Carlson and based on Brown's work, also concentrates on meaning as against sound discrimination. Its five sub-tests are - (a) immediate recall, (b) following directions, (c) recognising transitions, (d) recognising word meanings, (e) lecture comprehension.

Wilkinson also discusses the work of Spearrit[6] who made a factorial analysis of data from a battery of 34 tests concerned with 'reasoning, reading, attention, auditory resistance and memory.' They included experimental tests of listening comprehension, some based on the Sequential Tests of Educational Progress listening test (Educational Testing Service, 1959), and the A.C.E.R. modified reading tests (Australian Council for Educational Research, 1950). Spearritt's conclusion was that a separate 'listening comprehension factor' could be identified and Wilkinson observes that work at the Oracy Research Unit in the University of Birmingham also points to this. The Schools Council supported a project at the Unit, directed by Atkinson and Wilkinson[7] (1959), to design a listening comprehension test for use in C.S.E. examinations. Wilkinson notes that the test was designed from a linguistic as against a psychological viewpoint. The subtests were - content; detail; transitions; word meanings; listening for meaning; register and style.

W. H. King[8] compared the performance of primary school age boys and girls on tests of listening and reading comprehension. Ten comprehension passages, two from each of the following categories:- descriptive, conversational, imaginative, practical and scientific, were administered orally and visually to 475 children. The sample had been divided into two groups matched for mean and range of intelligence according to performance on a verbal intelligence test with 86 questions. Tests of ability to follow directions, of immediate recall using numbers, letters and words, of word meanings and of attention were also administered to the sample. The auditory and visual comprehension tests were found to correlate with each other and with an intelligence test at around 0.8 and there was no significant difference between the responses of both boys and girls to the oral and visual presentations of the test. Valerie Whitson[9] in an article, 'The correlation of Auditory Comprehension with General Language Proficiency', describes an experiment at Indiana University by Bernard Spolsky and colleagues.[10] They attempted to measure 'the ability to send and receive messages under varying conditions of distortion of the conducting medium' and Whitson claims that through this they 'found a method of testing overall proficiency' (of auditory comprehension presumably). She cites their hypothesis that there is a 'high degree of redundancy in a natural language system (which) makes communications possible even when there is considerable distortion of the conducting medium.' To test this hypothesis they compared the performance of groups of native speakers and of foreign students in understanding sentences on tape that had been acoustically distorted. The aim of the experiment was to 'determine a threshold of proficiency' - 'the noise level at which a subject can operate effectively.' This threshold was to be a 'measure of his (the subject's) general knowledge of all aspects of the language involved.'

Whitson carried out a test based on Spolsky's hypothesis, using a small sample of twelve non-native speakers of English and thirteen native speakers. In addition to a test based on Spolsky's work she administered parts A and B of the English Proficiency test devised by Dr. Frank Chaplen of Cambridge University, and results showed a correlation between the two sets of scores of 0.536. Although the sample was very small Whitson concludes that the experiment supported Spolsky's 'belief' that his test was an 'efficient way of screening subjects with low and high (English language) proficiency...less effective in giving results in the middle range.'

Spolsky's test, as described by Whitson, would appear to include a large element of sound discrimination but the sounds are contextualised and, as with many tests of listening skills including all those described above, it would also appear to be based on comprehension. In the present investigation the writer was not directly concerned with the sample's ability to understand the meaning of spoken S.B.E. but with its ability to recognise phonemes, to distinguish between the different sounds of S.B.E. It was felt that if these sounds were represented by contextualised words, the test would be one of comprehension and word meaning as well as, or even instead of, a test of sound discrimination. It was therefore decided to construct a test where the subjects would be required to discriminate between uncontextualised words with similar sounds.

(ii) The Construction of the Listening Discrimination Tests

The writer selected four sets of minimal pairs for each of forty one sound contrasts listed by Munro Mackenzie[11] in 'Modern English Pronunciation Practice.' These are shown in the following Table.

TABLE 23: LISTENING DISCRIMINATION TESTS: MINIMAL PAIRS

i ɪ	beat bit; leave live; heel hill; sheep ship
ɪ ɛ	will well; hid head; did dead; sit set
ɛ æ	men man; shell shall; bed bad; said sad
ɛ ɜ	end earned; ten turn; head heard; nest nursed
æ ʌ	cat cut; drank drunk; hat hut; match much
ʌ ɜ	shut shirt; bud bird; gull girl; hut hurt
ɑ ɔ	star store; cart caught; barn born; jar jaw
ɒ ɔ	fox forks; stock stalk; not nought; shot short
ʌ ɒ	luck lock; colour collar; sung song; rub rob
ɪə ɛə	really rarely; dear dare; cheer chair; ear air
i ɪə	knee near; be beer; bead beard; fee fear
ɛ ɛə	bed bared; ferry fairy; dead dared; merry Mary
ɛ eɪ	shed shade; pen pain; fell fail; sell sail
ɛɪ aɪ	tale tile; paint pint; hate height; mate might
i eɪ	fever favour; heat hate; greed grade; meal male
ɔ əʊ,oʊ	fork folk; chalk choke; call coal; bought boat
s ʃ	sort short; rust rushed; see she; parcel partial
f h	fit hit; fist hissed; fill hill; foam home
f v	safe save; proof prove; few view; off of
ʃ ʧ	shop chop; shoes choose; cash catch; share chair
v b	vest best; vote boat; van ban; vet bet
ʧ ʤ	chore jaw; batch badge; cheer jeer; rich ridge
f θ	half hearth; for thaw; fought thought; free three
v w	vet wet; vent went; verse worse; vile while
j ʤ	yet jet; yam jam; yolk joke; year jeer
b əʊ,oʊ	sock soak; smock smoke; got goat; honour owner
tr dr	try dry; trip drip; train drain; trunk drunk
aʊ əʊ,oʊ	found phoned; mound moaned; town tone; loud load
k g	cold gold; ankle angle; card guard; come gum
p b	pig big; peach beach; pin bin; rip rib
ŋ ŋk	bang bank; sling slink; bring brink; singer sinker
t d	mat mad; seat seed; ten den; tin din
n ŋ	thin thing; sin sing; ton tongue; win wing
l r	alive arrive; collect correct; light right; glass grass
s θ	some thumb; force fourth; pass path; sort thought
— h	arm harm; add had; eat heat; is his

z	ð	breeze breathe; lays lathe; booze booth; whizz with
t	θ	tree three; tank thank; tick thick; tin thin
s	z	police please; fierce fears; pace pays; niece knees
d	ð	den then; breeder breather; die thy; dare there
st	zd	host hosed; ceased seized; laced lazed; east eased

Various methods of presentation were considered and two forms of the test were constructed.

In one the subject would be required to look at a list of the minimal pairs used in the test while listening to a tape in which he would hear one of the words in the pair read twice. He would then circle the word which he thought he had heard. This form of the test was divided into two parts, each having 164 items and each including two of the minimal pairs for each of the sound contrasts listed above. Each pair was printed twice so that each word in each pair could be included on the tape. The sound contrasts were arranged in the same order in the two halves of each test and in both tests.

For the second form of the test there was an answer sheet on which the numbers 1 to 246 were printed, and by each number the letters S and D to represent 'same' and 'different'. The subject would be required to listen to a tape on which he would hear one of three combinations of the words in each minimal pair, i.e. for 'beat bit' he might hear 'beat beat', 'beat bit' or 'bit bit'. If he thought he had heard two different words he would circle D, if the same word repeated, S.

These two forms of the test were administered to a pilot sample of twenty two; 11 Jamaicans, 9 Greek/Turkish, 2 British, during the fifth week of the test period. The writer had considered using a male and a female voice to read the words on the tape. This was decided against, however, as it was felt that it might unnecessarily complicate the design by adding an additional variable. It was decided to use the writer's own

voice to which the students had all become accustomed by the fifth week in the test period.

During the pilot study the 'same - different' version of the test was found to be too long as the subjects became restless and complained that they could not concentrate for the whole length of the test. They appeared to find it easier to concentrate during the administration of the alternative version even though it was presented after the 'same different' form and they might therefore be expected to have been more tired.

The results are presented in Chapter 7, Section 1 (iii), Tables 34 and 35.

It can be seen from Table 34 that the mean score for the whole pilot sample on Test 1 is comparatively higher than on Tests 2 and 3 and the variance is less. One reason for the higher scores on Test 1 might have been the tendency for intonation to vary according to whether one is repeating the same word or reading two different ones. This might have provided an additional 'clue' as to whether the words were the 'same' or 'different'. It was therefore decided to use Tests 2 and 3 alone and they were subsequently re-labelled 'Listening Discrimination Tests 1 and 2.' The rank orders were similar for these two tests.

Although most of the items were answered correctly by the pilot sample and so did not discriminate between the subjects, it was decided not to reject them. The writer wished to retain all the items in order to provide equal numbers of examples for each sound contrast.

(iii) Procedure

The Listening Discrimination Tests were administered to small groups of the sample (numbers within the groups ranging from 9 to 22), during the fifth week of the test period. As with Tests 1 and 2 and the Essay tests within the English Test Battery the groups corresponded to English teaching sets. Even had the timetable and availability of rooms allowed the

sample to be tested together it would not have been practical for this test which required the subjects to be seated in a circle, at equal distances from the tape recorder.

As with the administration of the English Test Battery it was not possible for the writer personally to supervise the administration of the test to all groups. The same tape and tape recorder (open reel) was used for each group and the teachers, who administered the test to their own English sets, were asked to give the same instructions to each group. These were that the subjects, having been given copies of the Tests 1 and 2 answer sheets, should listen carefully to the tape and, for each item, circle the word which they believed themselves to have heard. They were to make their choice quickly, without too much thought and take care not to fall behind and miss items. They were to be encouraged to guess should they be unsure about any item and they were to be warned that if they circled both words in one item it would be marked wrong. The teachers were asked to make sure, through discussion and questioning, that all the subjects understood what they were to do before the tape was started as there were to be no interruptions once the test was under way.

The instruction recorded at the beginning of the tape before the first item was as follows:-

'Each word will be said twice. Circle the word you hear.'

As with the English Test Battery, the Listening Discrimination tests were administered to the separate groups on different days within the week and at different times. This factor, together with the varying amount of noise outside the different classrooms used, will have introduced further variables which could not be controlled or measured.

A subject who was absent on the day his group completed the tests was required to do them as soon as could be arranged after his return. For this purpose a cassette 'mini lab' recorder with earphones was used,

the open reel tape having been copied onto a cassette. This would again have introduced a further variable as the quality of recording may have differed. The number of subjects who completed the test in this way were as follows:- Jamaican -8; Greek/Turkish - 6; British - 9.

(iv) The Scoring of the Listening Discrimination Tests

The scripts were marked by the writer. Items were marked wrong if the incorrect word was circled, both words were circled, no word was circled. The raw scores on both tests were used when the data was analysed.

PART II : QUESTIONNAIRE, ATTENDANCE MEASURE, EXAMINATION PERFORMANCE

Section 1: The Questionnaire

(i) The purpose of the Questionnaire

It was felt that background variables such as length and type of educational experience in this country and in their country of origin might affect the English Test Battery performance of the Jamaican and Greek/Turkish subsamples to different degrees.

The Greek and Turkish subjects, viewing English as a foreign or second language, with different lexis and syntax from their mother tongue, might be expected to make progress in it in accordance with the amount of time spent learning it in school, both in their country of origin and in the U.K. The Jamaican subsample, however, not always being willing to accept that S.J.E. and its dialect forms, differ from S.B.E., might not be expected to make progress in any way related to their experience of English teaching in school. In many cases their teachers themselves, both in Jamaica and in the U.K., may not have acknowledged the difference and even where it has been acknowledged and an attempt has been made to teach S.B.E. as a second language, the closeness between the S.J.E. and dialects and the S.B.E. structures may have caused confusion and greater interference than that produced by the structures of Greek and Turkish. The psychological theories regarding language interference during the learning process have been discussed in Chapter 1, Sections 2 and 4.

Similarly, the Greek and Turkish subjects, recognising their need to learn English in order to communicate in British society, might be expected to have made progress in this which is related to the number of years spent in the U.K., whereas the Jamaican subjects, not perhaps finding any obvious breakdown in communication when using S.J.E. and its dialects with S.B.E.

speaking contacts, might not be expected to have made the same effort to learn S.B.E. A Greek or Turkish subject born in the U.K. might be expected to be bilingual, learning Greek or Turkish from parents and family and English from British associates in the neighbourhood and at school.

A child born of Jamaican parentage in the U.K., however, might not be expected to learn S.B.E. as a code separate, and in some ways different, from his first language. Learning S.J.E. and its dialects from his parents and siblings and finding it possible to communicate through it with S.B.E. speaking friends he might never feel the need to develop S.B.E. as a separate code.

The approximation of a Greek and Turkish subject's English to S.B.E. might be affected by factors such as the amount of English spoken at home, the number of English books, periodicals and newspapers read by the family and the number of English medium films viewed, membership of societies where English is the language of communication and attendance at churches where English is spoken. These factors might not influence the language of Jamaican subjects.

Similarly the English of a Jamaican subject might not be affected by whether or not he intends to settle in the U.K. A Greek or Turkish subject, however, because he experiences a problem in communication if he does not learn English, might be expected to strive harder to increase his mastery of S.B.E. if he intends to settle in the U.K.

A Jamaican-born subject's familiarity with S.B.E., however, might be affected by the area in which he lived in Jamaica. In Chapter 1, Section 2, the writer discussed the differing language use in rural and urban areas in Jamaica where the language use of a Jamaican subject from an urban area might more nearly approximate to S.B.E. than the English use of a subject from a predominantly rural area. One would not expect this factor to affect the English of a Greek or Turkish subject.

A number of the investigations outlined in Chapter 2, explored the relationship between such factors as length of stay in Britain and performance on English and verbal and non-verbal intelligence tests.[1]

For the purpose of the present investigation it was decided to obtain social, educational and linguistic background data on the subjects and so they were interviewed individually. The questionnaire was constructed for this purpose. The interviews also yielded information for case studies. Data on background variables considered suitable for statistical analysis by computer was subsequently transferred, in numerical coded form, onto a separate sheet. (Copies of both questionnaire and coding sheet may be found in Appendix VIII.) This data was required to test several hypotheses, details of which are given in Chapter 3, Section 1 (iii).

(ii) The Construction of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire comprises 57 questions in four categories as follows:-

questions 1 - 20 Home background

21 - 23 Educational background

24 - 44 Language background

45 - 57 Aspirations.

There is some overlap between the categories which only serve as rough guides for the organisation of the data. There was no attempt to word the questions in a manner which could be readily understood by all the subjects as they would not themselves be responsible for filling it in. It was designed to serve as a framework for the interview.

The questions on home background were to elicit information on the country of origin, degree of urban life experienced by the subject, the amount of time lived in the U.K. and elsewhere, the educational and occupational background and language behaviour of the people with whom the subject had lived and the quality of accommodation, the facilities available to the subject, at the time of testing.

Regarding education, the questions cover the length and type of schooling in the country of birth and in the U.K., examinations passed and details of any employment taken between school and college.

The language related questions deal with the subject's range of language use, his experience of English teaching in school, the language use of other members in his family and his six 'closest' friends, the amount of English medium material read in the home, the number of English medium films and television programmes viewed and membership of clubs and churches where English is spoken.

Regarding aspirations, the subjects were asked to state how long they intended to stay in the U.K. and London in particular, what examinations they wished to take and what employment they wished to enter.

(iii) Procedure

The subjects were all interviewed individually and during the interview the writer filled in the questionnaire. Each subject was told that he could refuse to answer any of the questions if he chose to do so but no subject did.

(iv) The extraction and coding of data for statistical analysis

Many of the details obtained from the interview were used for case studies only but the following information was extracted from the questionnaire and coded for statistical analysis by computer:-

Whether born in U.K.; type of U.K. education; years of U.K. education; rural/urban background; stated intention to settle in the U.K.

Regarding the type of U.K. education three separate categories were coded:-

1. none
2. secondary cycle or secondary plus further education cycle
3. secondary and primary cycle

It was considered permissible to combine the further education and secondary cycles as the work of the F.E. colleges was at the secondary level, i.e. up to 'O' level G.C.E. only, at the time of the investigation. (From September 1974, when the F.E. colleges amalgamated with the Technical colleges in London, their work includes 'A' level G.C.E.)

A count of the number of years of U.K. education was also included.

Pre-U.K. education was coded as:-

1. none
2. primary cycle
3. secondary cycle.

It was later decided not to use this data in the statistical analysis as, for some subjects, it was closely related to education in the U.K. For example, a subject who had been educated in the U.K. at primary and secondary level would not have been educated in Jamaica beyond basic or infant school level.

These categories are oversimplified and do not reflect the considerable variations between the types of school within the primary and secondary cycles in Jamaica and in the Greek and Turkish areas of Cyprus and in Greece and Turkey. It also ignores the differences between the educational systems and schools of the countries concerned.

However, the size of the sample did not allow for finer distinctions. Nor was it feasible to include a measure of the years of instruction in English and by the medium of English. The questionnaire elicited information on this but it was not considered possible to derive a measure which would reflect fairly all the differing types of English instruction experienced by the subjects.

Regarding rural/urban background, three categories were coded:-

1. rural
2. urban
3. both.

The third category was required because some of the subjects have lived and attended schools in both types of area.

Stated intention to settle in the U.K. was coded:-

1. yes
2. no.

Subjects who wavered and seemed undecided were coded 'no'.

(v) Data extracted from the questionnaire which was not included in the statistical analysis by computer

For Jamaican subjects only (total 114):-

1.	The number who were left in Jamaica with a grandmother or aunt while their mother came to the U.K.	96
2.	The number who came to London to live with a mother they had not seen for several years and with a new stepfather.	84
3.	The number who described the predominant language of their household in London as Jamaican dialect.	91
4.	The number who described their own first 'language' as Jamaican dialect.	92

For the whole sample (total 234):-

Table 24 gives the number of subjects in each of the three subsamples living in accommodation at density levels from 0.5 to 2.5.

TABLE 24: DENSITY OF LIVING ACCOMMODATION: NUMBER OF PERSONS PER ROOM *

No. of Persons per room	Jamaican (114 subjects)	Greek/Turkish (65 subjects)	U.K. (55 subjects)
0.5	6	3	2
0.6	5	4	4
0.7	10	8	8
0.8	15	6	12
0.9	2	-	1
1.0	26	9	13
1.1	3	2	-
1.2	18	9	6
1.3	9	5	2
1.4	4	4	-
1.5 ‡	6	2	3
1.6	1	2	1
1.7	4	4	1
1.8	1	1	-
1.9	-	-	-
2.0	4	3	2
2.1	-	-	-
2.2	-	-	-
2.3	-	2	-
2.4	-	-	-
2.5	-	1	-
% of cases living at density levels over 1.5	11.4%	8.4%	2.2%

* Data for this table is derived from the subjects' responses to questions 8 and 9. Rooms counted include living-rooms, bedrooms and kitchen/diners.

‡ Official reports (Milner Holland: Hackney Borough Council reports[2]) describe living conditions as overcrowded where density exceeds 1.5.

Table 25 gives the number of subjects in each subsample living in households in the U.K. with numbers of persons from 1 to 11.

TABLE 25: NUMBER OF PERSONS IN HOUSEHOLD

No. of persons in household	Jamaican subjects	%	Greek/Turkish subjects	%	U.K. subjects	%
1	2	1.8	2	3.0	3	5.5
2	3	2.6	3	4.6	2	3.6
3	15	13.2	6	9.2	6	10.9
4	16	14.0	12	18.5	17	30.9
5	27	23.7	10	15.4	13	23.6
6	22	19.3	13	20.0	7	12.7
7	13	11.4	11	16.9	3	5.5
8	8	7.0	2	3.0	2	3.6
9	4	3.5	4	6.1	-	
10	4	3.5	-		2	3.6
11	-		2	3.0	-	
Total number	114	100%	65	100%	55	100%

Out of each subject's declared six 'closest friends' the number with the same mother tongue or dialect were as follows:-

TABLE 26: NUMBER OUT OF SIX CLOSEST FRIENDS WITH SAME FIRST LANGUAGE OR DIALECT

No. with same mother tongue or dialect	Jamaican[1] subjects	%	Greek/Turkish[2] subjects	%	U.K. subjects	%
6	66	57.9	13	20.0	37	67.3
5	19	16.7	9	13.8	8	14.5
4	18	15.8	23	35.4	6	10.9
3	8	7.0	15	23.0	4	7.3
2	3	2.6	4	6.1	-	
1	-		1	1.5	-	
No. of subjects	114	100%	65	100%	55	100%

1. Friends from other West Indian islands where there are different dialects count as 'different', therefore these figures do not indicate the degree of association with West Indians generally - only with Jamaicans.

2. These figures do not indicate the degree of mixing within the Cypriot groups as, for example, a Turkish Cypriot friend of a Greek Cypriot would count as 'different', their mother tongues not being the same.

Table 27 gives data for the three subsamples on the following factors:- the number in each subsample whose parents' education was not continued beyond primary level; the number who have somewhere quiet to study at home; the number who express contentment with their home situation; the number who can obtain help with their studies from their parents, guardians or siblings.

TABLE 27

	Jamaican subjects	%	Greek/Turkish subjects	%	U.K. subjects	%
1. Parents educated to primary level only	92	80.7	33	50.8	2*	3.6
2. Have somewhere quiet to study at home	71	62.3	47	72.3	50	90.9
3. Express contentment with home situation	67	58.8	44	67.7	34	61.8
4. Can obtain help with studies from parents, guardians or sublings	16	14.0	7	10.8	32	58.2
Total number	114	100%	65	100%	55	100%

* Figures for the U.K. subjects may be subject to inaccuracy as subjects with parents who attended elementary school were unsure as to whether their parents had passed the primary level equivalent.

Section 2: The Attendance Measure

(i) The Purpose of the Attendance Measure

The attendance measure was designed to indicate the subjects' regularity of attendance in English lessons during the test period.

It was felt that one influence on the Greek and Turkish subjects' progress in improving their command of S.B.E. might be the number of English lessons they attended. As the Jamaican subject, however, might not recognise the need to 'learn' S.B.E. syntax, his regularity of attendance might not be expected to influence his progress in improving his command of S.B.E.

The aim of the attendance measure was, therefore, to test the hypothesis that a significant relationship would be found between the Greek and Turkish subjects' degree of regularity of attendance and their progress in S.B.E. as measured by the repeated tests in the English Test Battery but that no significant relationship would be found for the Jamaican subsample.

(ii) The construction of the Attendance Measure

A count was made from the registers (which were kept for each lesson) of the number of times each subject was absent from an English lesson during the test period of 28 weeks. Where a subject had more than one English lesson in any one day, he was counted as present for that day provided he attended any one of the lessons. It was, therefore, possible for a subject to have five 'attendances' per week, yielding a total attendance of 140.

The overall pattern of attendance is shown in Table 28 below which gives the number of subjects in each category, based on a class interval of ten absences.

TABLE 28: NUMBER OF ABSENCES

0	- 10	74	51	- 60	8
11	- 20	53	61	- 70	7
21	- 30	39	71	- 80	1
31	- 40	20	81	- 90	4
41	- 50	25	91	- 100	3

It was decided to use each subjects' actual number of absences for the statistical analysis as the establishment of category cut points would involve the making of assumptions regarding the relative effects of different numbers of absences.

The main limitation of this method of measuring attendance was the possible inaccuracy of the registers.

It was also recognised that mere physical presence in a lesson would not ensure that the subject was working or deriving benefit from the teaching.

A 'teacher-student rating scale' was developed during the early stages of the investigation (see Appendix VIII for copy), to assess the subject on such factors as motivation and concentration but this was abandoned when it became evident that subjects would be taught by different combinations of teachers. A measure of English work assignments completed was also considered and rejected because different teachers required different amounts of written assignments from their groups.

In the event, the only check made was that the English teachers were asked to compare their own assessment of the subjects' attainment in English with the subjects' performance on the English Test Battery. In most cases it was felt that the test performance was representative of the subjects' other work in English.

Section 3: Public Examination Performance in English

A measure of English examination performance was required to test the hypothesis that for each of the three subsamples there would be a significant relationship between S.B.E. proficiency as measured by performance on the English Test Battery and performance in public examinations in English.

The subjects were prepared, in the session 1972-3 for the G.C.E. 'O' level examination and, in the 1973-4 session, for the G.C.E. 'O' level and the C.S.E. examinations. In addition many of the subjects had taken the

C.S.E. examination in English previously, while still at school.

It was decided to code four categories of English examination performance:-

1. G.C.E. '0' level pass or
   C.S.E. Grade 1
2. C.S.E. Grade 2
3. C.S.E. Grades 3-5
4. None

It should be borne in mind that these categories entail somewhat arbitrary distinctions based on a hypothetical hierarchy of examination success. Two of the assumptions underlying the categories are that C.S.E. Grade 1 is equivalent to any '0' level pass and that C.S.E. Grade 2 represents a significantly different level of achievement than C.S.E. Grade 3. It is widely felt that a'good "O" level pass' is significantly higher than a C.S.E. Grade 1; however, the size of sample did not allow for finer distinctions.

A further weakness in the measure arises from the situation where the 1972-73 section of the sample was not entered for C.S.E. Most, however, had taken C.S.E. while at school and were able to give their grade.

Even so, taking all the limitations into account, this measure should be viewed as a very blunt instrument, giving only a rough guide to the sample's examination performance in English. The total number of G.C.E. '0' level passes in English language for all full-time college students entered during the period of the investigation is given in Appendix III.

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CHAPTER 7

THE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Section 1: The statistical analysis used in Test selection and construction

(i) Tests 1 and 2

Tests 1 and 2 were analysed for item facility and biserial r values by computer (programme: Fortap). Values were obtained for each of the three subsamples separately. Table 29 below gives the mean, standard deviation, Hoyt reliability value and standard error of measurement for each subsample on both tests.

TABLE 29: TESTS 1 AND 2. MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, HOYT RELIABILITY VALUES AND STANDARD ERRORS OF MEASUREMENT

	TEST 1				TEST 2			
	$\bar{X}$	σ	R	S.E.	$\bar{X}$	σ	R	S.E.
Jamaican N = 114	81.193	12.407	.924	3.405	63.746	18.164	.950	4.023
Greek/ Turkish N = 65	80.846	12.156	.924	3.340	69.708	16.266	.941	3.929
U.K. N = 55	92.309	5.718	.822	2.401	80.909	14.853	.950	3.929

The Hoyt reliability values range for Test 1 from .822 to .924 and for Test 2 from .941 to .950 which indicates that both tests are of satisfactory reliability for the three subsamples.

One of the hypotheses of the investigation was that the Jamaican and Greek/Turkish subsamples would both find it easier to recognise S.B.E. than to produce it and would therefore obtain higher scores on Tests 1 and 2. The mean scores shown in Table 29 support this as they are higher for

both subsamples on Test 1 than on Test 2. Table 30 below, which gives the numbers of items with various specified p. values for all three subsamples on Tests 1 and 2, also indicates that the Jamaican and Greek/Turkish subsamples (and also the U.K.) responded correctly to a greater number of items on Test 1 than on Test 2. One cannot, however, regard these results as in any way conclusive. The limitations of a comparison of the subsamples' performance on Tests 1 and 2 were discussed in Chapter 5, Section 2 (iv) (b). Whereas Test 1 measures ability to select a correct S.B.E. structure, Test 2 does not only measure this ability, but also the ability to follow a cue which is more complicated than the multiple choice alternative in Test 1, and to spell the response correctly.

TABLE 30: NUMBERS OF ITEMS WITH SPECIFIED FACILITY VALUES FOR THE THREE SEPARATE SUBSAMPLES ON TESTS 1 AND 2

	TEST 1			TEST 2		
p value	Jamaican N = 114	Greek/Turkish N = 65	U.K. N = 55	Jamaican N = 114	Greek/Turkish N = 65	U.K. N = 55
1.000	-	1	18	-	1	3
.9000 to 1.000	36	45	57	6	9	33
.4000 to .5000	2	6	1	7	7	2
.3000 to .4000	2	2	-	9	5	3
.2000 to .300	1	1	-	7	3	-
below .2000	-	-	-	1	-	-
N	100	100	100	100	100	100

It is evident from Table 30 above that a considerable number of items in Test 1 had p values of above .9000 for subjects in each of the three subsamples and in Test2for subjects in the U.K. subsample.

As the subjects' performance on Tests 1 and 2 were to be compared it was initially decided not to reject items unless they had a p value of .9000 or over for all three subsamples on both tests. As only three items were in this category (items 59, 69, 85) it was decided to retain them and avoid the necessity to adjust the scores. Besides, the tests were designed to measure written proficiency in recognising and producing S.B.E. structures; the fact that all subjects respond correctly to an item does not invalidate it. Such an item has served the purpose of demonstrating that the subjects are all able to use correctly the particular structure tested. The items 59, 69 and 85 did not discriminate between the subjects but as there were only three of them their rejection was not considered justifiable.

A further hypothesis was that the same items in Tests 1 and 2 forms would have different p values for the Jamaican and Greek/Turkish subsamples.

Although the Fortap programme revealed that most items on Tests 1 and 2 had slightly different p values for the two subsamples in question, Table 31 which follows indicates that several items on Tests 1 and 2 (35 and 18 respectively) had p values outside the range .5 to .9 for both subsamples. These items are underlined in the Table. A list of the structures tested by the items in the two tests is given in Appendix VI.

TABLE 31: ITEMS WITH SPECIFIED P VALUES FOR JAMAICAN AND GREEK/TURKISH SUBSAMPLES ON TESTS 1 AND 2

p value	TEST 1		TEST 2	
	Jamaican	Greek/Turkish	Jamaican	Greek/Turkish
1,000	-	81	-	64
.9000 to 1.000	2,3,8,13,14,15,22, 23,24,34,36,39,40, 42,43,45,46,47,52, 54,46,59,61,63,64, 68,69,72,73,76,79, 82,84,85,88,94	1,2,3,7,12,13,15,22,23 26,28,30,35,36,39,40, 42,43,44,45,46,52,53, 54,55,56,59,60,61,63, 64,65,69,72,73,76,79 81,82,84,85,88,93,94 99	1,7,59,64,69,85	1,7,35,52,59,69,79,85,93
.4000 to .5000	33,96	4,5,9,10,87,91	9,12,34,55,74,89,98	20,30,49,51,58,60,78
.3000 to .4000	5,32	33,80	49,51,63,70,73,78,91 95,99	5,11,16,80,98
.2000 to .300	80	32	5,11,30,58,60,80,86	86,95,96
.2000 and below	-	-	96	-

(ii) The Essay Tests

The choice of scoring method for the essay tests is discussed in Chapter 5, Section 2. In an attempt to evaluate the suitability of the Minimal Terminable Unit measurements (also discussed in Chapter 5, Section 2 (iv) for the present investigation, it was decided to calculate the T-unit length of thirty essays on the topic 'Myself'. Table 32 below gives the T-unit length for the first 100 words of the five essays with the highest aggregate percentage errors and the five with the lowest in each subsample. The scripts were arranged in rank order per group according to aggregate percentage error.

TABLE 32: ESSAY 1 - MINIMAL T-UNIT LENGTH

JAMAICAN SUBSAMPLE

Case	No. Words	Structural Error	%	Lexical Error	%	Aggregate Error	%	Minimal Terminable Unit Length
4	200	0	0	0	0	0	0	12.33
19	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	9.09
17	200	1	0.5	1	0.5	2	1.0	10.00
47	400	2	0.5	5	1.25	7	1.75	14.28
27	400	4	1.0	6	1.5	10	2.5	12.33
93	300	27	9.0	8	2.66	35	11.66	9.09
11	200	11	5.5	17	8.5	28	14.00	10.00
96	150	14	9.33	10	6.66	24	16.00	11.11
20	200	22	11.00	14	7.00	36	18.00	10.00
12	150	16	10.66	25	16.66	41	27.33	7.14

GREEK/TURKISH SUBSAMPLE

Case	No. Words	Structural Error	%	Lexical Error	%	Aggregate Error	%	Minimal Terminable Unit Length
189	400	2	0.5	2	0.5	4	1.0	11.11
223	400	2	0.5	2	0.5	4	1.0	8.33
198	300	1	0.33	5	1.66	6	1.99	9.09
221	350	1	0.28	7	2.00	8	2.28	10.00
205	300	1	0.33	7	2.33	8	2.66	25.00
176	200	4	2.00	15	7.5	19	9.5	8.33
172	350	10	2.85	30	8.57	40	11.42	10.00
211	100	7	7.00	5	5.00	12	12.00	11.11
227	150	11	7.33	8	5.33	19	12.66	11.11
207	200	17	8.5	27	13.5	44	22.00	11.11
		U.K. SUBSAMPLE						
132	300	0	0	0	0	0	0	11.11
119	400	0	0	1	0.25	1	0.25	7.68
120	400	0	0	1	0.25	1	0.25	12.33
134	400	1	0.25	0	0	1	0.25	10.00
117	400	0	0	2	0.5	2	0.5	14.28
155	200	3	1.5	6	3.0	9	4.5	11.11
122	250	3	1.2	9	3.6	12	4.8	10.00
154	200	2	1.0	11	5.5	13	6.5	14.28
115	150	3	2.0	12	8.0	15	10.0	7.68
141	100	4	4.0	8	8.0	12	12.0	6.66

It is evident from Table 32 above that there is no clear relationship between percentage error and T-unit length.

The thirty essays are reproduced in full in the Appendix. The following have the same measured T-unit lengths.

TABLE 33: ESSAYS WITH SAME MINIMAL T-UNIT LENGTH.

T-unit		Cases		
	7.68		115, 119	(U.K. subsample)
	8.33		176, 223	(Greek/Turkish subsample)
	9.09		198	(Greek/Turkish subsample)
			19, 93	(Jamaican subsample)
	10.00		11, 17, 20	(Jamaican subsample)
			172, 221	(Greek/Turkish subsample)
			122, 134	(U.K. subsample)
	11.11		132, 155	(U.K. subsample)
			96	(Jamaican subsample)
			189, 207, 211, 227	(Greek/Turkish subsample)
	12.33		4	(Jamaican subsample)
			120	(U.K. subsample)
	14.28		117, 154	(U.K. subsample)
			47	(Jamaican subsample)

There is evidence that although in some essays, cases 19, 93 and 198 and cases 115 and 119, for example, the same measured T-unit length reflects a similar degree of maturity of style, this is not true in general. Within the Jamaican subsample, for example, cases 20 and 17 (T-unit 10) both use little subordination; there is a difference in quality, however, which is not reflected in the measure of T-unit length and which is not wholly accounted for by actual structural and lexical errors.

From case 20's essay, for example:-

'I where born in Jamaica / and I was grow up in the District call Shewsbury, where I was living with my parents / which they have seven children of us which three boys and five girls / and my grandmother where leveng with us / which in all ten pupils were living in the home / '

and from case 17's essay:-

'My name is ----- / I am 17 years of age / I have very few hobbies / these hobbies are dancing, listening to music, not classical music, modern music such as pop, soul, or regae. / I go to a youth club twice a week both on a Tuesday and on a friday.'

There is a similar difference between cases 117 and 154, both from the British subsample. (T-unit 14.28)

Case 154:-

'I had some good time at --- / but it was very hard for me when I left --- because I could not walk because I had just had an opreation to get me feet flat on the ground.'

Case 117:-

'I was known to be a very spoilt baby by my paternal grandmother who always wanted a daughter / but, however, she was unable to have one. / So when I came along she was thrilled.'

And between cases 176 and 223 from the Greek/Turkish subsample. (T-unit 8.33)

Case 176:-

'I was born in Nicosia which is the capital of cyprus which is where I come from /'

Case 223:-

'I was born in Turkey / I had a very happy childhood / we had a big house with a garden in front of it / Fourteen years of my life I lived in that house / and I loved it.'

It is considered here that the longer T-unit written by case 176 is less mature than the shorter T-units written by case 223.

Compare also case 189 and case 227 from the Greek/Turkish subsample. (T-unit 11.11)

Case 227:-

'Im one of the lucky boy in the world who is born in one of the nicest country in the world which is turkey /'

Case 189:-

'My story begins on June 15th 1956 / I was born during the civil war in a suburb of Nicosia which is the capital of Cyprus.'

It was also felt that even where the T-unit measure did reflect the differences in maturity of style, it did not do so adequately for the purposes of the investigation. Case 19's essay, for example, had a measured T-unit length of 11.11 and case 27's of 12.33 but it was considered by the writer that there was a much larger difference in sophistication than the difference between measured T-unit length might indicate.

(iii) The Listening Discrimination Tests

A pilot study in which two versions of the Listening Discrimination Test were administered to 22 subjects is reported in Chapter 6, Part I, Section 2.

Means and standard deviations of the three tests are given in Table 34 below and the rank order of subjects in Table 35.

Test 1 is the 'same-different' form of the test and tests 2 and 3, the two parts of the 'circle the word you hear' version. Both versions are described in Chapter 6.

TABLE 34: LISTENING DISCRIMINATION TESTS 1, 2 AND 3, PILOT STUDY. MEAN SCORES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS.

	$\bar{X}$	σ
L.D. Test 1 (246 items)	230.59	4.11
L.D. Test 2 (164 items)	140.90	12.45
L.D. Test 3 (164 items)	148.11	8.06

TABLE 35: RANK ORDER OF CASES

L.D.TEST 1	L.D.TEST 2	L.D.TEST 3
9, 20	15	15
22, 8	13	13
14, 21	21	18, 10
15	10	7
3	7, 20	21
5, 16, 2, 18, 13	18	9, 6
16, 17	9	4
19	8, 4	12
1, 10, 11, 7	6, 2, 14	19, 17, 14
	17	8
	12	1
	22, 1	22
	16	2
	3	3, 20
	19	16
	5	11
	11	5

The mean score on Test 1 was proportionately higher than on Tests 2 and 3 and the variance less wide, and it was decided to use only the latter two in the main investigation.

Section 2: The Sample Wastage

As is reported in Chapter 4, the means and standard deviations of the Tests 1 and 2 scores of the subjects lost from the sample were calculated. The mean scores are given separately in Table 36 for the subjects lost during the two years of the investigation.

TABLE 36: TESTS 1 AND 2. MEAN SCORES FOR THE 1972-73 AND 1973-74 SAMPLES' WASTAGE SEPARATELY *

	1972-73		1973-74	
	Test 1	Test 2	Test 1	Test 2
Jamaican N :- 72-73 - 15 73-74 - 4	71.66	60.8	66.75	58.25
Greek/Turkish N :- 72-73 - 2 73-74 - 13	81.00	83.5	79.54	65.77
U.K. N :- 72-73 - 24 73-74 - 8	91.79	83.42	95.00	87.5

* These figures are not directly comparable owing to the small numbers in some groups.

Table 37 below gives the means and standard deviations of the Tests 1 and 2 scores for the Jamaican, Greek/Turkish and U.K. total wastage, and Table 38 gives the means and standard deviations for the Tests 1 and 2 scores of the three groups in the final sample. The latter were calculated using computer programme BMD07D.

TABLE 37: TESTS 1 AND 2. MEAN SCORES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR THE TOTAL WASTAGE 1972-74

	$\bar{X}$		σ	
	Test 1	Test 2	Test 1	Test 2
Jamaican N = 19	70.63	60.26	21.23	21.68
Greek/Turkish N = 15	79.73	68.13	12.44	16.02
U.K. N = 32	92.59	84.44	7.18	12.22

TABLE 38: TESTS 1 AND 2. MEAN SCORES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR THE FINAL SAMPLE

	$\bar{X}$		σ	
	Test 1	Test 2	Test 1	Test 2
Jamaican N = 114	81.20	63.83	12.41	18.18
Greek/Turkish N = 65	80.85	69.71	12.16	16.27
U.K. N = 55	92.31	80.89	5.72	14.87

T-tests were carried out on the mean Tests 1 and 2 scores for the Jamaican subjects lost during the two years versus the final Jamaican subsample, for the Greek/Turkish subjects lost versus the final Greek/Turkish subsample and for the U.K. subjects lost versus the final U.K. subsample. The results are presented in Tables 39 and 40. Fisher's t-test formula for small samples was used:-

$$t = \frac{D}{S.E._D}$$

where D is the difference between the means of the two samples and $S.E._D$ is the standard error of the difference between the means.

$$S.E._D = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sum x_1^2 + \sum x_2^2}{N_1 + N_2 - 2}\right)\left(\frac{1}{N_1} + \frac{1}{N_2}\right)}$$

where $\sum x_1^2$ and $\sum x_2^2$ are the sum of the squared deviations from the means and N_1 and N_2 are the sample sizes.

TABLE 39: T-TESTS FOR DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS FOR TEST 1.
FINAL SAMPLE VERSUS WASTAGE

	Sample $\bar{X}$	Wastage $\bar{X}$	t - Value
Jamaican	81.20	70.63	3.03 *
Greek/Turkish	80.85	79.73	0.32
U.K.	92.31	92.59	0.20

* significant at the 0.01 level

TABLE 40: T-TESTS FOR DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS FOR TEST 2.
FINAL SAMPLE VERSUS WASTAGE

	Sample $\bar{X}$	Wastage $\bar{X}$	t - Value
Jamaican	63.83	60.26	0.76
Greek/Turkish	69.71	68.13	0.34
U.K.	80.89	84.44	0.04

As is shown in Table 40 no significant differences at the 0.01 level were found between the Test 2 performances of the Jamaican, Greek/Turkish and U.K. subsamples and those of the subjects lost from each. Table 39 shows that similarly no significant differences at the 0.01 level were found between the Test 1 performances of the Greek/Turkish and U.K. subsamples and that of the subjects lost from them. A significant difference at 0.01 was found between the Test 1 performance of the Jamaican subsample and the subjects lost. It should be noted, however, that the different variances between the Test 1 scores for the Jamaican subsample and wastage may reduce the validity of the t-test in this instance.

These results suggest that the subjects lost from all subsamples were generally representative of the final sample as regards their performance on Test 1 and 2, with one reservation.

Section 3: The Investigation

(i) Means and Standard Deviations

Using programme BMD07D, the means and standard deviations were calculated by computer for the three separate subsamples, on the English Test battery, on the tests of verbal and non-verbal intelligence and on the Listening Discrimination tests. The programme also computed correlation matrices for the three subsamples, using test scores and background variables. The means and standard deviations are given in Table 41 which follows.

TABLE 41: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS

	Jamaican		Greek/Turkish		U.K.	
	$\bar{X}$	0	$\bar{X}$	0	$\bar{X}$	0
English Test Battery						
Test 1 (100 items)	81.202	12.410	80.846	12.156	92.309	5.718
Test 2 (100 items)	63.833	18.179	69.708	16.266	80.891	14.873
Test 2 repeat	65.877	16.392	73.046	14.109	82.509	12.937
Manchester Reading Test (60 items)	21.526	10.660	24.908	11.420	37.527	11.460
Reading Test (No. of errors)	2.281	3.820	0.062	0.300	0.0	0.0
Written Picture (No. of errors)	2.935	2.474	2.975	3.429	0.631	1.124
Oral Picture (No. of errors)	1.804	2.357	1.482	1.889	0.394	0.954
Essay 1 % structural errors	2.616	2.376	2.442	2.369	0.519	0.761
% lexical errors	3.265	2.951	3.021	2.636	1.611	2.193
Essay 2 % structural errors	4.049	3.419	2.370	2.547	1.120	1.483
% lexical errors	3.197	3.872	2.615	2.748	1.321	1.829
Test 2 difference scores	2.044	10.984	3.338	8.834	1.618	8.610
Essay % structural error diff. score	1.434	3.041	-0.072	1.976	0.601	1.406
Essay % lexical error diff. score	-0.68	3.046	-0.406	2.292	-0.290	1.350
Raven's Standard P.M. (60 items)	39.352	11.514	46.631	7.072	47.164	7.969
Mill Hill Vocab.Scale (66 items)	30.763	8.279	28.615	9.767	40.200	9.755
Listening Discrimin.1 (164 items)	151.886	11.351	153.815	6.729	158.855	7.629
Listening Discrimin.2 (164 items)	149.500	11.985	151.877	8.614	137.582	7.403
N	114		65		55	

(ii) t-tests for significance of difference between means

In order to determine the significance of the difference between the means, t-tests were carried out on the parametric test scores for the Jamaican subsample versus the Greek/Turkish and U.K. subsamples, for the Greek/Turkish subsample versus Jamaican and U.K. subsamples, and for the U.K. subsample versus the Jamaican and Greek/Turkish. Programme BMDP3D was used for this and the tests involved were, Test 1, Test 2, Test 2 repeat, Test 2 difference scores, Essay percentage structural error difference and lexical difference scores, Manchester Reading Test, Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices, Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale, and the two Listening Discrimination tests. Results are shown in Tables 42, 43 and 44 which follow.

TABLE 42: T-TESTS FOR DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS
(JAMAICAN VERSUS GREEK/TURKISH)

	Variances		Means	
	F. Value	Alpha	T.(separate)	Alpha
Test 1	1.04	0.868	0.19	0.852
Test 2	1.25	0.332	-2.23	0.028 *
Test 2 repeat	1.35	0.190	-3.08	0.002 *
Test 2 diff. scores	1.55	0.058	-0.86	0.390
Essay % structural error diff. scores	2.37	0.000 *	4.01	0.000 *
Essay % lexical Error diff. scores	1.77	0.014 *	0.84	0.403
Manchester Reading Test	1.15	0.519	-1.95	0.053 *
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices	2.65	0.000 *	-5.26	0.000 *
Mill Hill Vocab. Scale	1.39	0.126	1.49	0.138
Listening Disc. 1	2.85	0.000 *	-1.43	0.127
Listening Disc. 2	1.94	0.004 *	-1.53	0.127

* significant at .05

TABLE 43: T-TESTS FOR DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS
(JAMAICAN VERSUS U.K.)

	Variances		Means	
	F. Value	Alpha	T.(separate)	Alpha
Test 1	4.71	0.000 *	-7.96	0.000 *
Test 2	1.49	0.101	-6.48	0.000 *
Test 2 repeat	1.61	0.054 *	-7.16	0.000 *
Test 2 diff. scores	1.63	0.048 *	0.27	0.784
Essay % structural error diff. scores	4.67	0.000 *	2.43	0.016 *
Essay % lexical error diff. scores	5.09	0.000 *	0.66	0.513
Manchester Reading Test	1.16	0.516	-8.70	0.000 *
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices	2.09	0.003 *	-5.15	0.000 *
Mill Hill Vocab. Scale	1.39	0.147	-6.18	0.000 *
Listening Disc. 1	2.21	0.002 *	-4.71	0.000 *
Listening Disc. 2	2.62	0.000 *	-5.38	0.000 *

* significant at .05

TABLE 44: T-TESTS FOR DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS
(GREEK/TURKISH VERSUS U.K.)

	Variances		Means	
	F. Value	Alpha	T.(separate)	Alpha
Test 1	4.52	0.000 *	-6.77	0.000 *
Test 2	1.20	0.501	-3.93	0.000 *
Test 2 repeat	1.19	0.515	-3.83	0.000 *
Test 2 diff. scores	1.05	0.851	1.08	0.283
Essay % structural error diff. scores	1.97	0.011 *	-2.17	0.032 *
Essay % lexical error diff. scores	2.88	0.000 *	-0.34	0.731
Manchester Reading Test	1.01	0.973	-6.02	0.000 *
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices	1.27	0.358 *	-0.38	0.702
Mill Hill Vocab. Scale	1.00	0.998	-6.48	0.000 *
Listening Disc. 1	1.29	0.334	-3.80	0.000 *
Listening Disc. 2	1.35	0.254	-3.90	0.000 *

* significant at .05

The results of the t-tests on Test 2 support the hypothesis that the mean score of the Jamaican subsample would be lower or equivalent to that of the Greek/Turkish subsample. Table 42 indicates that the mean scores of the Jamaican subsample on Test 2 and Test 2 repeat are significantly lower than those of the Greek/Turkish subsample.

Regarding the hypothesis that the Jamaican subsample as a whole would make less progress than the Greek/Turkish subsample as measured by the difference scores between Test 2 and Test 2 repeat, however, Table 42 shows that the results of the t-tests on the Test 2 difference scores do not bear this out. There is no significant difference between the Jamaican and the Greek/Turkish subsample.

Similarly Table 44 indicates no significant difference between the Test 2 difference scores for the Greek/Turkish and U.K. subsample. The hypothesis that the U.K. subsample as a whole would make less progress than the Greek/Turkish subsample as measured by the Test 2 difference scores is not supported. These results are due, not to an unpredicted improvement in the Test 2 scores of the Jamaican and U.K. subsamples but to a low rate of progress by the Greek and Turkish subjects which was less than anticipated. This could have been due largely to boredom on the part of the subjects who could not find the task of completing Test 2 for a second time, interesting.

Regarding the hypothesis that the mean score of the Jamaican subsample as a whole on Test 1 would be lower than or equivalent to that of the Greek/Turkish subsample, Table 42 does indeed show no significant difference between the two means.

Tables 43 and 44 indicate significant differences between the U.K. subsample and both the Jamaican and the Greek/Turkish subsamples on both Test 1 and Test 2 means. There is a significant difference, however, between the variances on Test 1 for both the Jamaican and U.K. and Greek/Turkish and U.K. subsamples and this may lessen the validity of the t-tests.

Likewise with the t-tests between the means of the Essay percentage structural and percentage lexical error, difference scores; for all three pairs of subsamples the variances are significantly different on both sets of scores. Table 42 shows a significant difference between the mean percentage structural error difference scores of the Jamaican and Greek/Turkish subsamples which would give partial support to the hypothesis that the Jamaican subsample would make less progress than the Greek/Turkish subsample in improving their ability to produce acceptable S.B.E. in composition, were the variances between the two groups' scores not significantly different.

Table 44 indicates that the mean percentage structural error difference scores for the Greek/Turkish group is significantly higher than that for the U.K. group which adds support to the hypothesis that the U.K. subsample, like the Jamaican would make less progress than the Greek/Turkish in improving their ability to produce acceptable S.B.E. in composition. But again, the variances are significantly different and so one may not attach too much importance to the results. Similarly the figures in Table 43 show that the Jamaican mean difference score on percentage structural error is significantly higher than that of the U.K. subsample but the significant difference between the variances again lessens the validity of the measure.

Tables 43 and 44 reveal that both the Jamaican and Greek/Turkish subsamples scored significantly lower than the U.K. subsample on the Manchester Reading Test, and Table 42 supports the hypothesis that the Jamaican subsample would achieve a lower or equivalent mean score than the Greek/Turkish subsample on this test, as the Jamaican mean is significantly lower than that of the Greek/Turkish subsample.

With regard to scores on the non-verbal intelligence test, Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices, Tables 42 and 43 indicate that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of the Jamaican and Greek/Turkish subsamples and between the mean scores of the Jamaican and U.K.

subsamples. In both cases the Jamaican subjects' mean score is the lower. The variances, however, are also significantly different between the two pairs. Table 44 shows no significant difference between the mean scores of the Greek/Turkish and the U.K. subjects. These results support only the latter part of the hypothesis that the Jamaican and the Greek/Turkish subsamples would not score significantly lower than the U.K. subsample on Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices.

Although the differences in variance render the t-tests less valid, it is of interest that the Jamaican subjects scored significantly lower than both the U.K. and the Greek/Turkish subjects on the test of 'non-verbal' intelligence, particularly as the Greek/Turkish subjects did not perform significantly less well than the U.K. subjects. Reference to Tables 42, 43 and 44 reveals that there is no significant difference between the means of the Jamaican and Greek and Turkish subjects on the verbal intelligence test, the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale, whereas there is a significant difference in favour of the U.K. subjects between their mean scores and those of both the Jamaican and Greek and Turkish subjects. This supports the hypothesis that the Jamaican and Greek/Turkish subsamples would score significantly lower than the U.K. subsample on the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale.

The concept of 'culture fairness' as applied to 'non-verbal' intelligence tests, and particularly to Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices, is discussed in Chapter 6, Section 1. Although the Matrices are designed to test 'intelligence' without the influence of language aptitude, various investigations[1] have indicated that bilingualism and general language competence can influence test performance. From this one might expect the Greek/Turkish subjects to perform less well than the U.K. subjects on the Matrices through the influence of their bilingualism. One might also expect the Jamaican subjects to perform less well than the U.K.

subjects if one accepted that their dialect placed them also in a second language situation in relation to S.B.E. Their performance on the English Test Battery in the present investigation, as reported above, would seem to support the basic hypothesis of the investigation, that they would have a language handicap at least equivalent to that of the Greek and Turkish subjects and so one might expect both the Greek/Turkish and Jamaican subjects to obtain lower mean scores than the U.K. subjects on Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices. It has been seen, however, that in this investigation, although the Jamaican subjects do achieve significantly lower scores than the U.K. subjects, the Greek and Turkish subjects do not. Possible reasons for this are discussed more fully in Chapter 8; they include a consideration of housing conditions, the home environment, the extent and influence of racial prejudice in U.K. society and the effect of white test administrators on black subjects' performance on intelligence tests.

With regard to the two tests of listening discrimination, Tables 43 and 44 indicate that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of the Jamaican and the U.K. subsamples on both tests and between the Greek/Turkish and the U.K. subsamples. In both cases the differences are in favour of the U.K. subsample but the variances between the scores for the Jamaican and U.K. subjects are also significantly different.

Table 42, however, indicates that there is no significant difference on both tests between the means of the Jamaican and Greek/Turkish subsamples. These results support the hypothesis that the Jamaican subsample would achieve equal or lower mean scores than the Greek/Turkish subsample and the Jamaican, like the Greek/Turkish subsample, would perform less well than the U.K. subsample.

The results of the t-tests carried out by programme BMDP3D can be summarised as follows. Table 42 indicates that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of the two subsamples on Test 2,

Test 2 repeat, essay percentage structural error difference score, Manchester Reading Test and Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices. In all cases, except the essay score where the scores represent the number of errors not correct responses, the difference is in favour of the Greek/ Turkish subsample. Of these results those related to the essay and Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices scores, should be treated with especial caution as the between group variances were also significantly different.

Table 43 reveals a significant difference between the mean scores of the two subsamples on Test 1, Test 2, Test 2 repeat, essay percentage structural error difference scores, Manchester Reading Test, Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices, Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale and Listening Discrimination Tests 1 and 2. In all cases, except once more the essay scores, the difference is in favour of the U.K. subsample. The between group variances were, however, significantly different on Test 1, Test 2 repeat, the essay scores, Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices and both the Listening Discrimination tests.

Table 44 indicates a significant difference between the mean scores of the Greek/Turkish and U.K. subsamples on Test 1, Test 2, Test 2 repeat, essay percentage structural error difference scores, Manchester Reading Test, Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale and the Listening Discrimination Tests. In all cases except the essay, the difference is again in favour of the U.K. subsample. The between group variance was significantly different on Test 1, the essay scores and Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices.

(iii) <u>The Correlation Matrices</u>

Programme BMDP3D constructed correlation matrices for the three subsamples separately using the test scores and background variables included on the coding sheet (Appendix VIII). Tables A5.1, A5.2 and A5.3 in Appendix V give condensed forms of the matrices. Only tests with parametric distributions approximating to normal and interval, ordinal and nominal data with two categories only are included.

(a) Jamaican subsample Correlation Matrices

With regard to the English Test Battery correlations significant at the 0.01 level of confidence are indicated between:-

Test 1 and Test 2	(r = .66)
Test 1 and Test 2 repeat	(r = .69)
Test 1 and Manchester Reading Test	(r = .62)
Test 2 and Manchester Reading Test	(r = .64)
Test 2 and Test 2 repeat	(r = .80)
Test 2 and Test 2 difference scores	(r = .46)
Manchester Reading Test and Test 2 repeat	(r = .59)

and at the 0.05 level between:-

Manchester Reading Test and Test 2 difference scores	(r = .18)

It is of interest that the Manchester Reading Test, standardised on mother tongue speakers of English, should correlate for the Jamaican subsample, within the range .59 to .64 with Tests 1, 2 and 2 repeat which were designed for the present investigation, to measure proficiency in S.B.E. This might suggest a reading comprehension factor in Tests 1 and 2 or a general 'language proficiency' element in the Manchester Reading Test, or a combination of the two. It is also worth noting that the combinations of Tests 1, 2 and 2 repeat correlate with each other within the range .66 to .80 which would seem to indicate their validity in testing a common 'S.B.E. proficiency' element. Unfortunately the writer was unable to explore this further as the data was not suitable for statistical measurement such as factor analysis as the between group variances differed too much.

Table A5.1 in Appendix V also shows a .42 correlation for the Jamaican subjects, significant at the 0.01 level, between Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices and the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale. Raven[2] suggested that a grading lower on the Vocabulary Scale than on the Matrices, 'arises when a person has not received or for some reason has not been able to acquire, the general information and command of the English language his intellectual capacity warrants.'

One might therefore have expected comparatively lower scores for the Jamaican subjects on the Vocabulary Scale than on the Matrices, due to their limited command of Standard British English and therefore no significant correlation between the Jamaicans' scores on the two tests. However, in section (ii) above, it is reported that whereas both the Greek/Turkish and Jamaican subjects scored significantly lower than the U.K. subjects on the Vocabulary Scale, only the Jamaican subjects scored significantly lower than the U.K. on the Matrices, thereby scoring significantly lower than the Greek and Turkish subjects also. No significant correlation was found between the scores of the Greek and Turkish subjects on the Matrices and Vocabulary Scale, as reported in (iii) (b) below. However, there is a significant correlation between the Jamaican subjects' scores on the two tests. This does not imply a lack of difficulty with S.B.E. resulting in depressed scores on the Vocabulary Scale but rather indicates depressed scores on the Matrices.

Between the two Listening Discrimination tests, a correlation of .85, significant at the 0.01 level, is indicated for the Jamaican subsample. As the Listening Discrimination Tests 1 and 2 could be regarded as two halves of the same test;[2] this correlation could be taken as an indication of their reliability for the Jamaican subjects.

Correlations significant at 0.01 between the following tests in the English battery and Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices and the Listening Discrimination tests are as follows:-

between Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices and:-	Test 1	(r = .44)
	Test 2	(r = .40)
	Test 2 repeat	(r = .46)
	Manchester Reading Test	(r = .43)
	Listening Discrimination 1	(r = .28)
	Listening Discrimination 2	(r = .32)

between Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale and:-	Test 1	(r = .54)
	Test 2	(r = .59)
	Test 2 repeat	(r = .57)
	Manchester Reading Test	(r = .65)
	Listening Discrimination 1	(r = .36)
	Listening Discrimination 2	(r = .38)
between Listening Discrimination 1 and:-	Test 1	(r = .67)
	Test 2	(r = .51)
	Test 2 repeat	(r = .52)
	Manchester Reading Test	(r = .46)
between Listening Discrimination 2 and:-	Test 1	(r = .70)
	Test 2	(r = .54)
	Test 2 repeat	(r = .53)
	Manchester Reading Test	(r = .49)

It is of interest that contrary to one hypothesis of the investigation, Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices correlate significantly at the 0.01 level, within the range .40 to .46, with Tests 1, 2 and 2 repeat and the Manchester Reading Test. Although this might suggest co-variance within the Jamaican subsample it was not possible to investigate this further as the data was not suitable for analysis of variance and co-variance which require similar between group variances.

As might be expected, the correlation between the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale and Tests 1, 2, 2 repeat and Manchester Reading was significant at 0.01 and within the range 0.54 to 0.65.

A comparatively high correlation, within the range .51 to .70 is indicated between the two Listening Discrimination Tests and Tests 1, 2 and 2 repeat. As with Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices, this might suggest co-variance but the data was not amenable to further analysis regarding this for the reasons given regarding the between group variance.

(b) The Greek/Turkish subsample correlation Matrix

The matrix (Table A5.2 Appendix V) indicates correlations significant at the 0.01 level between the following tests in the English Battery:-

Test 1 and Test 2	(r = .63)
Test 1 and Test 2 repeat	(r = .61)
Test 1 and Manchester Reading Test	(r = .65)
Test 2 and Test 2 repeat	(r = .84)
Test 2 and Manchester Reading Test	(r = .55)
Test 2 repeat and Manchester Reading	(r = .49)

As with the Jamaican subsample, therefore, the Manchester Reading Test scores correlate significantly with Tests 1, 2, 2 repeat; for the Greek/Turkish subsample the correlation is within the range .49 to .65 which again suggests a reading comprehension element in the latter tests or a general 'language proficiency' element in the Manchester Reading, or both.

The combinations of Test 1, Test 2 and 2 repeat correlate within the range .61 to .84 for the Greek and Turkish subjects and, as for the Jamaican subjects, this might indicate a common 'S.B.E. proficiency' factor in the tests.

As is discussed in section (iii) (a) above, for the Greek/Turkish subsample, unlike the Jamaican, no significant correlation at 0.01 or 0.05, is indicated between Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices and the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale. This would suggest that a lack of proficiency in S.B.E. depressed the subjects' scores on the latter but did not, to the same extent, affect their performance on the Matrices.

As with the Jamaican subsample, there is a high correlation of .81 between the Listening Discrimination tests which could be taken as further indication of their reliability.

Between Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices, Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale and the two Listening Discrimination Tests and the following tests in the English Battery, correlations significant at 0.01 are indicated as follows:-

between Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices and:-	Test 1	(r = .35)
	Test 2	(r = .36)
	Test 2 repeat	(r = .34)
	Manchester Reading Test	(r = .36)
	Listening Discrimination 1	(r = .34)
between Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale and:-	Test 1	(r = .54)
	Test 2	(r = .48)
	Test 2 repeat	(r = .42)
	Manchester Reading Test	(r = .61)
	Listening Discrimination 1	(r = .57)
	Listening Discrimination 2	(r = .62)
between Listening Discrimination 1 and:-	Test 1	(r = .64)
	Test 2	(r = .40)
	Test 2 repeat	(r = .33)
	Manchester Reading Test	(r = .63)
between Listening Discrimination 2 and:-	Test 1	(r = .62)
	Test 2	(r = .52)
	Test 2 repeat	(r = .43)
	Manchester Reading Test	(r = .63)

No significant difference at 0.01 or 0.05 is indicated between Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices and Listening Discrimination Test 1.

As for the Jamaican subsample, therefore, Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices correlate significantly with Tests 1, 2 and 2 repeat and Manchester Reading Test within the range .34 to .36. Although this range is lower than for the Jamaican subjects it could still be regarded as an indication of possible co-variance. However, as is discussed in section (iii) (a) above, it was not possible to carry out an analysis of co-variance to investigate this further.

Again, as for the Jamaican subsample, the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale scores correlate, as could be expected, within the range .48 to .61, with the scores on Tests 1, 2, 2 repeat and the Manchester Reading Test.

The two Listening Discrimination tests correlate with Tests 1, 2 and 2 repeat within the range .33 to .64, not quite so high as for the Jamaican subsample but nevertheless a further indication of possible co-variance.

(c) The U.K. subsample correlation matrix

For the U.K. subsample, correlations significant at 0.01 are indicated between the following combinations of tests in the English battery:-

Test 1 with:-	Test 2	(r = .70)
	Test 2 repeat	(r = .71)
	Manchester Reading Test	(r = .65)
Test 2 with:-	Test 2 repeat	(r = .82)
	Test 2 difference scores	(r = .50)
	Manchester Reading Test	(r = .65)
Test 2 repeat with:-	Manchester Reading Test	(r = .63)

As for the Jamaican and Greek/Turkish subsamples, the Manchester Reading Test correlates with Tests 1, 2 and 2 repeat, within the range .63 to .65 and the combinations of Tests 1, 2 and 2 repeat correlate with each other, for the U.K. subsample within the range .70 to .82. In addition, for the U.K. subsample, Test 2 correlates with Test 2 difference scores at .50.

The U.K. subjects' scores on Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices correlate at 0.52, significant at the 0.01 level, with their scores on the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale. This is a higher correlation than that for the Jamaican subjects (discussed in section (a) above) and contrasts with the lack of significant correlation between the Greek and Turkish subjects' scores on the two tests.

The correlation between the two Listening Discrimination scores for the U.K. subsample is significant at .75 and though not as high as for the Jamaican and Greek/Turkish subsamples, could still be taken as an indication of the test's reliability.

Correlations, significant at 0.01, are indicated between the following tests:-

Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices and:-	Test 1	(r = .52)
	Test 2	(r = .59)
	Test 2 repeat	(r = .60)
	Manchester Reading Test	(r = .53)
	Listening Discrimination 2	(r = .35)
Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale and:-	Test 1	(r = .63)
	Test 2	(r = .71)
	Test 2 repeat	(r = .69)
	Manchester Reading Test	(r = .75)
	Listening Discrimination 2	(r = .54)
Listening Discrimination 1 and:-	Test 1	(r = .47)
	Test 2	(r = .37)
	Test 2 repeat	(r = .38)
Listening Discrimination 2 and:-	Test 1	(r = .60)
	Test 2	(r = .47)
	Test 2 repeat	(r = .47)
	Manchester Reading Test	(r = .52)

Correlations, significant at 0.05, are indicated between:-

Manchester Reading Test and Listening Discrimination 1 (r = .31)

Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale and Listening Discrimination 1 (r = .32).

No significant correlation is indicated between Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices and Listening Discrimination 1.

The correlation between Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices and Tests 1, 2, 2 repeat and Manchester Reading Test, within the range .52 to .60, is higher therefore than that for both the Jamaican and Greek and Turkish subjects. This is also true of the correlation between the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale and Tests 1, 2, 2 repeat and Manchester Reading Test, within the range .63 to .75. The two Listening Discrimination tests, however, correlate with Tests 1, 2 and 2 repeat from .60 to not significant, which is a lower range of correlation than that for the Jamaican and for the Greek and Turkish subjects.

Conclusions

For all three subsamples, therefore, there are positive correlations, significant at 0.01, between Tests 1, 2, 2 repeat and the Manchester Reading Test, which suggests a common test element, possibly reading comprehension and/or an 'S.B.E. proficiency' factor.

There are also positive correlations, significant at 0.01, between the two Listening Discrimination Tests, for all three subsamples which could be taken as an indication of test reliability.

Possible co-variance is indicated between the English tests 1, 2, 2 repeat and the Manchester Reading Test and Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices, the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale and the Listening Discrimination Tests for all three subsamples. This could not be explored further by statistical means, however, as the between group test variance differed too greatly for analysis of variance and co-variance.

For the U.K. subsample a significant positive correlation was found between performance on Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices and the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale. No significant correlation was found for the Greek/Turkish subsample, which suggests depressed scores on the Vocabulary Scale through their lack of proficiency in S.B.E. Although one might have expected a similar lack of correlation between the verbal and non-verbal intelligence tests for the Jamaican subsample, a positive correlation was indicated, lower than that for the U.K. subsample but nevertheless significant. It is suggested that the main reason for this might be depressed scores on the non-verbal intelligence test, the Matrices, through environmental factors, rather than an absence from language handicap resulting in higher scores on the verbal intelligence test than those achieved by the Greek/Turkish subsamples. The mean scores of the subsamples on the Matrices and the Vocabulary Scale (reported in Table 41), support this hypothesis as the Greek/Turkish subsample achieve a higher mean score than the Jamaican sub-

sample on the Matrices but a lower mean score on the Vocabulary Scale. This question is discussed further in Chapter 8.

(iv) The Statistical Analysis of tests in the English Battery with non-parametric Distributions

Scores in the two essay tests, the picture descriptions, both oral and written and the Reading Test were not parametric. This was due to the scoring method which consisted of error counts, percentaged for all except the Reading Test, and which resulted in a fairly substantial number of zero scores.

It was decided not to submit the Reading Test scores to further analysis as the mean scores for the three subgroups gave sufficient support for the hypothesis that the Jamaican subsample would 'read' certain S.B.E. structures incorrectly whereas the Greek/Turkish subsamples would make only pronunciation errors which were not scored. The Jamaican mean was 2.281 errors, the Greek/Turkish mean 0.062 and the U.K., 0.000.

With regard to the essays and picture descriptions, it was decided to employ the Median Test, a procedure for testing whether two independent samples are drawn from populations with the same median. The null hypothesis is that the two groups are from populations with the same median and the alternative hypotheses used in the present investigation, that the median of one population is higher than that of the other (one-tailed test used for the Jamaican/U.K. and Greek/Turkish/U.K. comparisons), and that the median of one population is different from that of the other (two-tailed test used for the Jamaican/Greek/Turkish comparison).

The median scores for the combined Jamaican and Greek/Turkish, U.K. and Greek/Turkish and Jamaican and U.K. subsamples, were determined for the percentage structural and for the percentage lexical errors on each of the essay tests and for the percentage errors on the picture written and oral tests. For each pair of subsamples the six sets of scores were

divided into two groups, those which exceeded the median and those which did not and contingency tables were constructed for each set as in the example below:-

	Group 1	Group 2	
Number of scores which exceed the median	A	B	A + B
Number of scores which do not exceed the median	C	D	C + D
	A + C	B + D	$N = n_1 + n_2$

The x^2 test for significance was then employed, the values of which are distributed approximately as chi square. The formula is as follows:-

$$x^2 = \frac{N\left(\left|AD - BC\right| - \frac{N}{2}\right)^2}{(A + B)(C + D)(A + C)(B + D)}$$

where the letters A, B, C and D refer to the contingency table above and N is the total number of cases in the combined groups.

The results are given in Table 45 below. For the 1-tailed test the probability levels given in the chi-square table have been halved.

TABLE 45: MEDIAN TEST - x^2 VALUES

	2-tailed test Jamaican v. Greek/Turkish		1-tailed test Jamaican v. U.K.		1-tailed test Greek/Turkish v. U.K.	
	Median score	x^2	Median score	x^2	Median score	x^2
Essay 1 % structural errors	2.0	0.8276	1.3	35.9042***	0.8	24.9876***
Essay 1 % lexical errors	2.2	0.0008	2.0	10.2103**	1.5	7.4708**
Essay 2 % structural errors	2.5	6.6202	2.0	46.9995***	1.2	13.4266***
Essay 2 % lexical errors	2.0	0.6356*	1.5	20.6441***	1.3	14.9264***
Picture Oral % errors	2.0	0.0008	1.5	38.4195***	0.7	17.8905***
Picture Written % errors	1.0	1.4933	0	19.0748***	0	11.2964***

*** significant at .0005
** significant at .005
* significant at .01

The x^2 values indicate that the median scores for the Jamaican subsample and for the Greek/Turkish subsample, on all six test measures, are significantly lower than the median scores for the U.K. group and that there is no significant difference between the median scores for the Jamaican and for the Greek/Turkish subsamples on all the test measures, except on Essay 2 percentage lexical errors where there is a significant difference at the .01 level of confidence. This generally supports the hypothesis that the Jamaican subjects as a whole would have as much difficulty as the Greek and Turkish subjects in producing acceptable written and spoken S.B.E. as measured by the Essay and Picture tests.

Section 4: A Comparison of the test performance of the two separate year groups combined in the final sample and of the Greek and Turkish groups within the Greek/Turkish subsample.

Programme BMD07D was used to calculate the means and standard deviations of the test performances of the two separate year groups within the Jamaican and U.K. subsamples and within the Greek and Turkish groups which were combined to form the final Greek/Turkish subsample. T-tests were then carried out using Fisher's formula, $t = \frac{D}{S.E._D}$ on the mean scores on Tests 1, 2, Manchester Reading, Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices and the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale, between the two year groups in the Jamaican, U.K., Greek and Turkish subsamples. The results are given in Table 46 which follows:

TABLE 46: MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND T-VALUES FOR DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS FOR SEPARATE YEAR GROUPS WITHIN THE FINAL SAMPLE

	Jamaican					U.K.				
	1972-73		1973-74			1972-73		1973-74		
	$\bar{X}$	σ	$\bar{X}$	σ	t-Val	$\bar{X}$	σ	$\bar{X}$	σ	t-Val
Test 1	79.867	13.812	82.685	10.570	1.20	92.579	5.612	91.706	6.080	0.51
Test 2	66.933	17.144	60.389	18.827	1.92*	83.816	13.554	74.353	16.000	2.22**
Manchester Reading	23.617	11.480	19.204	9.225	2.23**	38.447	11.570	35.471	11.276	0.87
Raven's S. P. Matrices	40.317	10.870	38.222	12.197	0.96	47.000	8.950	47.529	5.375	0.22
Mill Hill Vocab. Scale	32.117	7.157	29.259	9.205	1.84*	40.605	8.613	39.294	12.180	0.45
N	60		54			38		17		

** significant at 0.05

* significant at 0.1

TABLE 46: MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND T-VALUES FOR DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS FOR SEPARATE YEAR GROUPS WITHIN THE FINAL SAMPLE (cont'd)

	Greek					Turkish				
	1972-73		1973-74			1972-73		1973-74		
	$\bar{X}$	σ	$\bar{X}$	σ	t-Val	$\bar{X}$	σ	$\bar{X}$	σ	t-Val
Test 1	85.600	9.752	85.625	7.782	0.01	77.897	13.489	74.875	11.704	0.56
Test 2	79.750	10.182	61.375	11.975	3.94***	69.517	15.061	53.625	20.584	1.99**
Manchester Reading	30.000	12.999	24.125	9.342	1.64	23.621	11.431	17.625	5.449	1.40
Raven's S. P. Matrices	50.150	4.184	50.000	3.854	0.08	44.138	8.275	43.500	5.976	0.20
Mill Hill Vocab. Scale	31.900	6.561	30.125	9.156	0.55	27.172	10.850	24.125	11.643	1.35
N	20		8			29		8		

*** significant at 0.01

** significant at 0.05

* significant at 0.1

As indicated in Table 46 no significant difference was found between the means of the Jamaican separate year groups on Test 1 and Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices, but a significant difference at 0.1 was found on Test 2 and the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale and at 0.05 on the Manchester Reading Test. For the U.K. subsample no significant difference was found between the means of the year groups on Test 1, Manchester Reading, Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices and the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale, but a significant difference at 0.05 was found on Test 2. Similarly for the Greek subsample no significant difference was found between the means of the year groups on Test 1, Manchester Reading, Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices and the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale, but a significant difference at 0.01 was found on Test 2 and again, for the Turkish subsample no significant difference is indicated between the means on all the tests except Test 2 where a significant difference at 0.05 is indicated.

It would seem therefore that although there are no highly significant differences between the separate year groups within the subsamples on most of the tests, there are significant differences on Test 2.

As the numbers involved in the U.K., Greek and Turkish comparisons are relatively small, however, and not equally divided between the year groups, one must view these results with caution. In general, the differences that were found between the year group means were not considered significant enough when viewed together with the means for which no significant differences were indicated, to lead one to conclude that the separate year groups within the sample were drawn from significantly different populations.

T-tests were also carried out on the mean scores on the same five tests of the Greek 1972-73 group versus the Turkish 1973-74 year group and of the Greek 1973-74 group versus the Turkish 1973-74 group. Results are presented in Table 47 which follows.

TABLE 47: T-TESTS FOR DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS FOR THE SEPARATE GREEK AND TURKISH GROUPS WITHIN THE GREEK/TURKISH SUBSAMPLE

	Greek versus Turkish 1972-73	Greek versus Turkish 1973-74
Test 1	2.15**	2.04**
Test 2	2.59***	0.86
Manchester Reading Test	1.83**	1.59
Raven's S. P. Matrices	2.94***	2.42**
Mill Hill Vocab. Scale	1.71**	1.07
	Combined N. 49	Combined N. 16

*** significant at 0.01

** significant at 0.05

It would appear from Table 47 that there is a significant difference between the means on all five tests for the first year sample of Greeks and Turks. In each case the difference is in favour of the Greeks. The numbers in the year samples are comparatively small, however, and these results must be viewed as suggestive only.

Section 5: The Independent variables from the Questionnaire, Attendance Measure and English examination performance.

(i) The Correlation Matrices

The Correlation Matrices computed by programme BMD07D included several background variables, the number of years of U.K. education, attendance measured by number of absences, English examination performance, whether the subject was born in the U.K. and whether he intended settling in the U.K. It was possible to include the latter two in the matrices, although nominal data, as they comprised only two categories.

(a) The Jamaican subsample correlation matrix

For the Jamaican subjects Table A5.1 (Appendix V) indicates the following significant relationships between the independent background variables and the test performances.

There is a significant relationship at the 0.05 level between:-

'born U.K.' and:-	'attendance'	(r = .21)
	Test 1	(r = .19)
	Manchester Reading Test	(r = .19)
	Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices	(r = .20)
	Listening Discrimination 2	(r = .17)
'years of U.K. education' and:-	'attendance'	(r = .22)

and at the 0.01 level between:-

'years of U.K. education' and:-	'examination performance'	(r = .51)
	Test 1	(r = .43)
	Test 2	(r = .32)
	Test 2 repeat	(r = .28)
	Manchester Reading Test	(r = .29)
	Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices	(r = .29)
	Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale	(r = .28)
	Listening Discrimination 1	(r = .36)
	Listening Discrimination 2	(r = .44)

At the 0.05 level between:-

'Intention to Settle' and:-	'examination performance'	(r = .20)
	Manchester Reading Test	(r = .23)
'attendance' and:-	'born U.K.'	(r = .21)
	years of U.K. education	(r = .22)
	Test 2 difference scores	(r = .19)

At the 0.01 level between:-

'examination performance' and:-	Test 1	(r = .43)
	Test 2	(r = .28)
	Test 2 repeat	(r = .37)
	Manchester Reading Test	(r = .24)
	Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices)	(r = .32)
	Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale	(r = .43)
	Listening Discrimination 1	(r = .23)
	Listening Discrimination 2	(r = .34)

These results do not in the main support the hypothesis that there would be no significant relationship for the Jamaican subsample between years of U.K. education, U.K. birth and intention to settle with the English test battery scores, and between attendance and progress in S.B.E. as measured by the Test 2 and Essay difference scores. Two of the English tests, Test 1 and Manchester Reading, are significantly related at 0.05 with U.K. birth and all the English tests are significantly related at 0.01 with years of U.K. education. There is a significant relationship at 0.05 between Test 2 difference scores and attendance.

The hypothesis that there would be a significant relationship between English examination performance and performance on the English Test Battery is, however, supported by the results.

It is also of interest that English examination performance is significantly related at 0.01 with years of U.K. education, (r = .51)

(b) The Greek/Turkish subsample correlation matrix

Table A5.2 (Appendix V) indicates the following significant relationships between the independent background variables and test performance for the Greek/Turkish subjects.

At the 0.05 level between:-		
'born U.K.' and:-	Test 1	(r = .27)
At the 0.01 level between:-		
'born U.K.' and:-	'intention to settle'	(r = .45)
	'examination performance'	(r = .47)
	Listening Discrimination 1	(r = .32)
At the 0.05 level between:-		
'years of U.K. education' and:-	Test 2 difference scores	(r = .29)
At the 0.01 level between:-		
'years of U.K. education' and:-	'intention to settle'	(r = .59)
	'examination performance'	(r = .48)
	Test 1	(r = .44)
	Manchester Reading Test	(r = .48)
	Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale	(r = .37)
	Listening Discrimination 1	(r = .52)
	Listening Discrimination 2	(r = .38)
At the 0.05 level between:-		
'intention to settle' and:-	Listening Discrimination 2	(r = .31)
	Test 2 difference scores	(r = .23)
At the 0.01 level between:-		
'intention to settle' and:-	'examination performance'	(r = .53)
	Test 1	(r = .41)
	Manchester Reading Test	(r = .33)
	Listening Discrimination 1	(r = .41)
'attendance' and:-	Essay % lexical error difference scores	(r = .31)

'examination performance' and:-

Test 1	(r = .49)
Manchester Reading Test	(r = .54)
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices	(r = .28)
Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale	(r = .33)
Listening Discrimination 1	(r = .46)
Listening Discrimination 2	(r = .42)

These results lend only partial support to the hypotheses that there would be a significant relationship between years of U.K. education, U.K. birth and intention to settle and performance on the English Test Battery, that attendance would be significantly related to progress in S.B.E. as measured by Test 2 and Essay difference scores, and that there would be a significant relationship between English examination performance and performance on the English Test Battery.

There was no significant relationship between U.K. birth and performance on the English Test Battery, and years of U.K. education and intention to settle were both significantly related to Test 1 and Manchester Reading Test only. Attendance is related significantly to essay percentage lexical error difference scores but not to percentage structural error difference scores, nor to Test 2 difference scores. There is a significant relationship between English examination performance and Test 1 and Manchester Reading Test only.

As with the Jamaican subsample, it is of interest that there is a significant relationship at 0.01 between years of U.K. education and English examination performance. It is also interesting that for the Greek and Turkish subjects, intention to settle is also significantly related at 0.01 with English examination performance.

(c) The U.K. subsample correlation matrix

U.K. birth, intention to settle and years of U.K. education are not relevant variables with regard to the U.K. subjects. Table A5.3 indicates

that there is no significant relationship between attendance and any other variable or test performance. English examination performance is significantly related at 0.05 with Test 2 repeat (r = .33) and at 0.01 with:-

Test 1	(r = .34)
Test 2	(r = .37)
Manchester Reading Test	(r = .48)
Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale	(r = .51)

The hypothesis that there would be a significant relationship between performance in the English examinations and on the English Test Battery is therefore partially supported.

(ii) Independent background variables: Nominal Data with more than two categories

The relationship between nominal data with more than two categories and the sample's test performance could not be investigated by means of correlation matrices. Programme BMD07D was therefore used to give means of test performance and standard deviations for the Jamaican subsample divided into three categories, on the basis of rural, urban or a mixture of rural and urban background and then on the basis of type of U.K. education.

Programme BMDP3D was then used to carry out t-tests for the significance of difference between means on the tests for the three categories within the Jamaican subsample with regard to both rural/urban background and type of U.K. education. It was not feasible to investigate the Greek/Turkish and U.K. subsamples in this way as the numbers within the categories would be too small for valid statistical analysis. It was not therefore possible to test the hypotheses that there would be no significant relationship between rural/urban background and English Test performance but a significant positive relationship between type of U.K. education and English test performance for the Greek/Turkish subsample.

(a) Rural/urban background

The three categories are:- category 1 - rural; category 2 - urban; category 3 - both. Table 48 below gives the means, standard deviations for the three categories.

TABLE 48: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR JAMAICAN SUBJECTS BY RURAL/URBAN BACKGROUND

	Category 1 group		Category 2 group		Category 3 group	
	$\bar{X}$	σ	$\bar{X}$	σ	$\bar{X}$	σ
Test 1	66.500	16.144	84.149	9.872	80.600	12.022
Test 2	51.500	21.030	65.090	17.391	65.657	12.550
Test 2 repeat	54.750	20.697	66.104	15.330	69.257	15.580
Test 2 difference scores	3.250	13.123	1.015	11.751	3.600	8.493
Manchester Reading Test	11.917	6.459	23.060	11.059	21.886	9.455
Essay % structural difference scores	4.199	5.343	1.393	2.519	0.564	2.388
Essay % lexical difference scores	-0.135	3.697	-0.226	2.944	0.258	3.072
Raven's S. P. Matrices	31.333	13.520	41.030	11.511	38.800	9.782
Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale	26.167	6.250	30.672	9.002	32.514	6.870
Listening Discrimination 1	138.000	23.203	153.448	7.546	153.657	8.210
Listening Discrimination 2	136.083	18.427	151.343	10.178	150.571	9.748
N	12		67		35	

It is evident from Table 48 that the means for subjects with a rural background (category 1), are lower than those for subjects with urban, and rural and urban mixed backgrounds (categories 2 and 3), on Test 1, Test 2, Manchester Reading Test, Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices, Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale and the two Listening Discrimination Tests. However, as the number in category 1 is so small, t-tests were carried out on category 2 versus category 3 only. The results of these are given in Table 49 below.

TABLE 49: T-TESTS FOR DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS FOR THE JAMAICAN SUBSAMPLE BY RURAL/URBAN BACKGROUND

	Category 2 versus Category 3			
	Variance		Means	
	F. Value	Alpha	T.(separate)	Alpha
Test 1	1.48	0.171	1.50	0.139
Test 2	1.02	0.926	-0.16	0.877
Test 2 repeat	1.03	0.889	-0.98	0.333
Test 2 diff. scores	1.91	0.041	-1.27	0.206
Manchester Reading Test	1.37	0.321	0.56	0.576
Essay % structural diff. scores	1.11	0.747	1.63	0.107
Essay % lexical diff. scores	1.09	0.751	-0.77	0.446
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices	1.38	0.302	1.03	0.307
Mill Hill Vocab. Scale	1.72	0.087*	-1.15	0.252
Listening Disc. 1	1.18	0.549	-0.13	0.900
Listening Disc. 2	1.09	0.799	0.37	0.710

* significant at 0.05

None of these t-values reaches significance which indicates that, for the Jamaican subsample in the present investigation, there is no significant difference in test performance for subjects with a wholly urban background and those with rural and urban mixed. The mean scores of subjects with a rural background are lower than the means of those with an urban and a rural/urban mixed background and this might support the hypothesis that there would be a significant relationship between rural/urban background and performance on the English Test Battery for the Jamaican subsample, that the various influences of an urban environment contribute towards increasing the subjects' command of S.B.E. However, the number of subjects with a wholly rural background are too small for the results to be regarded as anything more than vaguely suggestive.

(b) Type of U.K. education

The three categories are: category 1 - none; category 2 - secondary or secondary and further education; category 3 - secondary or secondary and further education plus primary. Table 50 which follows, gives the means, standard deviations for the three categories.

TABLE 50: MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR THE JAMAICAN SUBSAMPLE BY TYPE OF U.K. EDUCATION

	Category 1 group		Category 2 group		Category 3 group	
	$\bar{X}$	σ	$\bar{X}$	σ	$\bar{X}$	σ
Test 1	70.600	14.431	81.918	10.905	86.950	8.070
Test 2	56.160	20.342	64.020	17.429	68.400	16.428
Test 2 repeat	56.480	16.651	67.061	14.875	70.300	16.037
Test 2 difference scores	0.320	11.689	3.041	10.836	1.900	10.853
Manchester Reading Test	16.520	8.926	22.367	10.232	23.625	11.397
Essay % structural difference scores	2.356	4.476	1.221	2.544	1.117	2.4078
Essay % lexical difference scores	0.626	3.461	-0.139	3.114	-0.415	2.666
Raven's S. P. Matrices	34.040	11.963	38.571	11.551	43.550	9.743
Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale	27.560	6.299	31.184	6.787	32.250	10.411
Listening Discrimination 1	144.440	17.805	152.265	8.590	156.075	5.806
Listening Discrimination 2	139.680	17.464	150.347	9.331	154.600	5.651
N	25		49		40	

T-tests were carried out on Category 1 versus Category 2, Category 2 versus Category 3 and Category 1 versus Category 3. Results are given in Tables 51, 52 and 53 which follow.

TABLE 51: T-TESTS FOR DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS FOR THE JAMAICAN SUBSAMPLE BY TYPE OF U.K. EDUCATION

	Category 1 versus Category 2			
	Variances		Means	
	F. Value	Alpha	T.(separate)	Alpha
Test 1	1.75	0.098	-3.45	0.001*
Test 2	1.36	0.357	-1.65	0.107
Test 2 repeat	1.25	0.496	-2.68	0.010*
Test 2 diff. scores	1.16	0.639	-0.97	0.337
Manchester Reading Test	1.31	0.475	-2.53	0.014*
Essay % structural error diff. scores	3.10	0.001*	1.17	0.249
Essay % lexical error diff. scores	1.24	0.514	0.93	0.358
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices	1.07	0.812	-1.56	0.126
Mill Hill Vocab. Scale	1.16	0.706	-2.28	0.027*
Listening Disc. 1	4.30	0.000*	-2.08	0.046*
Listening Disc. 2	3.50	0.000*	-2.85	0.008

* significant at 0.05

TABLE 52: T-TESTS FOR DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS FOR THE JAMAICAN SUBSAMPLE BY TYPE OF U.K. EDUCATION

	Category 2 versus Category 3			
	Variances		Means	
	F. Value	Alpha	T.(separate)	Alpha
Test 1	1.83	0.055	-2.50	0.014*
Test 2	1.13	0.708	-1.22	0.227
Test 2 repeat	1.16	0.616	-1.98	0.331
Test 2 diff. scores	1.10	0.983	0.49	0.623
Manchester Reading Test	1.24	0.474	-0.54	0.589
Essay % structural error diff. scores	1.12	0.728	0.20	0.844
Essay % lexical error diff. scores	1.36	0.320	0.04	0.654
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices	1.41	0.275	-2.21	0.030*
Mill Hill Vocab. Scale	2.35	0.005*	-0.56	0.579
Listening Disc. 1	2.19	0.013	-2.49	0.015*
Listening Disc. 2	2.73	0.002*	-2.65	0.010*

* significant at 0.05

TABLE 53: T-TESTS FOR DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS FOR THE JAMAICAN SUBSAMPLE BY TYPE OF U.K. EDUCATION

	Category 1 versus Category 3			
	Variances		Means	
	F. Value	Alpha	T.(separate)	Alpha
Test 1	3.20	0.001*	-5.18	0.000*
Test 2	1.53	0.230	-2.54	0.015*
Test 2 repeat	1.08	0.816	-3.30	0.002*
Test 2 diff. scores	1.16	0.665	-0.54	0.588
Manchester Reading Test	1.63	0.207	-2.80	0.007*
Essay % structural error diff. scores	3.46	0.001*	1.27	0.212
Essay % lexical error diff. scores	1.69	0.140	1.28	0.207
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices	1.51	0.249	-3.34	0.002*
Mill Hill Vocab. Scale	2.73	0.011*	-2.26	0.027*
Listening Disc. 1	9.40	0.000*	-3.16	0.004*
Listening Disc. 2	9.55	0.000*	-4.14	0.000*

* significant at 0.05

Table 51 indicates significant differences of means for Category 1 (the Jamaican subjects with no U.K. education), versus Category 2 (Jamaican subjects with secondary or secondary and further education), on Test 1, Test 2 repeat, Manchester Reading Test, Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale, Listening Discrimination Tests 1 and 2. The between group variances, however, were also significant for the two Listening Discrimination tests.

Table 52 indicates significant differences of means for Category 2 versus Category 3 (Jamaican subjects with secondary or secondary and further education and also primary education in U.K.), on Test 1, Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices and the two Listening Discrimination Tests. The between group variances were again significantly different for the Listening Discrimination tests.

Table 53 indicates significant differences of means for Category 1 versus Category 3 on Test 1, Test 2, Test 2 repeat, Manchester Reading Test, Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices, Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale and the Listening Discrimination tests. Significant differences between group variances are shown for Test 1, Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale and the Listening Discrimination tests.

It is evident from these results that the hypothesis that there would be no significant relationship between English test performance and type and extent of U.K. education for the Jamaican subsample is not supported.

The Jamaican subjects who had no U.K. education performed significantly less well than those with only secondary or secondary plus further and than those with secondary, secondary plus further and primary, on Test 1, Test 2 repeat and Manchester Reading Test. They also performed significantly less well on Test 2 than those with secondary, secondary plus further and primary. The subjects with only secondary or secondary plus further performed significantly less well on Test 1 than those with a U.K. primary education as well as secondary, secondary and further.

It would appear that a total or partial U.K. education may be a contributory factor in determining the extent of proficiency in S.B.E. of a subject born in Jamaica or in the U.K. of Jamaican parents, even where the subject's language environment at home reinforces a dialect variant of English. This is discussed in Chapter 8.

Regarding the Jamaican subjects' performance on Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices, Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale and the Listening Discrimination tests, it is of interest that although no significant difference is indicated in Table 51 between the performance of subjects with no U.K. education and those with secondary or secondary and further alone there is a significant difference between both those with no U.K. education and those with secondary or secondary and further and those with secondary or secondary and further plus primary. It would appear that primary education is a contributory factor in determining the performance of the Jamaican subjects in the present investigation on the non-verbal intelligence test. This is again discussed, in conjunction with the other findings regarding the sample's performance on the Matrices, in Chapter 8.

With regard to the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale, Tables 51 and 53 indicated that the Jamaican subjects with no U.K. education performed less well than those with secondary or secondary and further only and than those with primary as well. It would appear that U.K. education at secondary and at primary level may influence the Jamaican subjects' performance on verbal intelligence tests.

All three tables indicated significant differences in performance on the two Listening Discrimination tests for each combination of subjects, those with no U.K. education, with secondary, secondary plus further, with secondary, secondary plus further and primary. In each case the group which performed less well was the one with less U.K. education, which might suggest that U.K. education at primary and at secondary level can influence

the Jamaican subjects' ability to discriminate between the S.B.E. phonemes incorporated in the Listening Discrimination tests. However, for all three comparisons regarding these, between group variances also differed significantly and so one must view the results of the t-tests with caution.

It would appear, therefore, in the present investigation, that the level and extent of U.K. education influenced the Jamaican subjects' performance, to some degree, on all the tests on which t-tests were carried out, except the essay percentage structural and lexical error difference scores.

REFERENCES - CHAPTER 7

Section 3

1. Reported in Chapters 2 and 6.

2. The construction of the Listening Discrimination Tests is reported in Chapter 6, Part I, Section 2.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSIONS

The aim of the present investigation was to test the hypothesis that West Indian students have as much difficulty in learning S.B.E. as students for whom English is a second or foreign language. A battery of seven English tests, six constructed for the investigation, was administered to a sample of 234 Jamaican, Greek and Turkish speaking and British further education college students in an attempt to measure their proficiency in S.B.E. and to assess the progress they made in improving their command of it. The sample also completed standardised tests of verbal and non-verbal intelligence and tests of listening discrimination, specifically constructed for the investigation. Information on the educational, social and linguistic background of the subjects was collected by individual interview and questionnaire.

Tests 1 and 2 were analysed by computer for item facility and biserial r values. Means and standard deviations were calculated for the three subsamples on all tests and t-tests were carried out on the means on Tests 1, 2, 2 repeat, 2 difference scores, Manchester Reading Test, Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices, Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale and two Listening Discrimination Tests for the Jamaican subsample versus the Greek/Turkish and U.K. subsamples, the Greek/Turkish versus the Jamaican and U.K. subsamples and the U.K. subsample versus the Jamaican and Greek/Turkish. Correlation Matrices were constructed for the three subsamples separately using the test scores and five background variables, extracted from the questionnaire - number of years of U.K. education, attendance, English examination performance, whether the subject was born in the U.K. and whether he intended settling here. For

the Jamaican subsample only, means and standard deviations on all tests were calculated for the subjects divided into three categories, first on the basis of rural, urban or mixed background, and then type of U.K. education. T-tests were then carried out on the test means for each of the paired combinations of the three categories, for both variables.

The scores of the essay and picture, and reading tests were non-parametric. The reading test scores were not analysed further[1] but the Median test was employed to compare the performance of the three sub-samples on the essay and picture tests.

In order to establish whether the subjects lost from the sample were representative of the final sample, the means and standard deviations of the Tests 1 and 2 scores of the former were calculated and t-tests were carried out on these test means for the Jamaican subjects lost versus the final Jamaican subsample, for the Greek and Turkish subjects lost versus the final Greek/Turkish subsample and for the U.K. subjects lost versus the final U.K. subsample. The two separate year groups of subjects, combined in the final sample, were compared by t-test for significance of difference between means on all the tests with parametric distributions. The performance of the Greek subjects was compared with that of the Turkish subjects for each of the two year groups, on Tests 1 and 2, Manchester Reading, Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices and the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale.

(i) Summary of Findings

(a) Tests 1 and 2

The analysis indicated a satisfactory reliability for both tests. The mean scores of all three subsamples were higher on Test 1 than on Test 2, which supports the hypothesis that the Jamaican and Greek/Turkish subsamples would both find it easier to recognise Standard English than to produce it. The validity of this finding, however, is lessened by

the limitations of a comparison of Tests 1 and 2.[2] Most items had slightly different facility values for the Greek/Turkish and Jamaican subsamples but some items on Test 2 and more on Test 1 had high or low facility values for both groups.[3]

(b) T-tests on the tests with parametric distributions

The results support the hypothesis that the mean scores of the Jamaican subsample on Tests 1 and 2 would be lower than or equivalent to those of the Greek/Turkish subsample. The mean scores of both the Jamaican and Greek/Turkish subsamples were significantly lower than those of the U.K. subsample. The hypothesis that the Jamaican and U.K. subsamples would make less progress than the Greek/Turkish subsample as measured by the Test 2 difference scores is not, however, supported. The t-tests on the essay percentage structural and lexical error difference scores give only partial support to the hypothesis that the Jamaican subsample would make less progress than the Greek/Turkish subsample in improving their ability to produce acceptable S.B.E. in composition; there were significant differences regarding the percentage structural errors. With regard to the Manchester Reading Test the hypothesis is supported that the Jamaican subsample would achieve a lower or equivalent mean score to the Greek/Turkish; the Jamaican's mean score is significantly lower. The results only partially support the hypothesis that the Jamaican and Greek/Turkish subsample would not score significantly lower than the U.K. subsample on Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices; the mean score for the Jamaican subsample was significantly lower than those for the other two subsamples. With the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale, however, the hypothesis is supported as the U.K. subsample scored significantly higher than both the Jamaican and Greek/Turkish. The hypothesis that the Jamaican subsample would achieve equal or lower mean scores than the Greek/Turkish subsample on the Listening Discrimination tests and that both the Jamaican and the Greek/Turkish subsamples would perform less well than the U.K. subsample is also supported.

It should be noted, however, that for several of the t-tests[4] the between group variance was significantly different and this will have lessened the validity of the t-tests.

(c) Correlation Matrices: Tests

Positive correlations were found for all three subsamples between Tests 1, 2, 2 repeat and the Manchester Reading Test, which might suggest a common reading comprehension or S.B.E. proficiency test factor. The two Listening Discrimination tests intercorrelate positively for all three subsamples which could be taken as an indication of test reliability. For all three subsamples possible co-variance is indicated between Tests 1, 2 and 2 repeat and the Manchester Reading Test and Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices, Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale and the Listening Discrimination tests. However, the between group variance differed too much for analysis of variance and co-variance to be carried out. A positive correlation was found for the U.K. and Jamaican but not for the Greek/Turkish subsample, between performance on Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices and the Mill Hill Vocabulary Test.

(d) The Median Test on tests with non-parametric distributions

The results supported the hypothesis that the Jamaican subsample would have as much difficulty as the Greek/Turkish in producing acceptable S.B.E. as measured by the Essay and Picture tests; the Jamaican and Greek/Turkish median scores on all the tests were lower than the U.K. median scores and no significant difference was found between the median scores of the Jamaican and Greek/Turkish subsamples, except on the Essay 2 percentage lexical errors. The hypothesis that the Jamaican subsample, unlike the Greek/Turkish, would make more errors in the oral than in the written Picture test was not supported. The mean scores indicated that both subsamples made more errors in the written form of the test.

(e) Correlation Matrices: Independent variables

For the Jamaican subsample the results do not generally support the hypothesis that there would be no significant relationship between years of U.K. education, U.K. birth and intention to settle, with the English Test Battery scores, and between attendance and progress in S.B.E. as measured by Test 2 and the essay difference scores. All the English tests were significantly related to years of U.K. education, Test 1 and the Manchester Reading Test with U.K. birth and Test 2 difference scores with attendance. The hypothesis that there would be a significant relationship between English examination and the English Test Battery performance is, however, supported.

For the Greek/Turkish subsample the results only partially support the hypothesis that there would be a significant relationship between years of U.K. education, U.K. birth and intention to settle, and performance on the English Test Battery, that attendance would be significantly related to progress in S.B.E. as measured by Test 2 and essay difference scores and that there would be a significant relationship between English examination and English Test Battery performance. There was no significant relationship between U.K. birth and English Test Battery performance, years of U.K. education and intention to settle were only significantly related to Test 1 and Manchester Reading test, attendance was only significantly related to Essay percentage lexical error difference scores and English examination performance to Test 1 and Manchester Reading Test. For both the Jamaican and Greek/Turkish subsamples there was a significant relationship between years of U.K. education and English examination performance and for the Greek/Turkish subsample the latter is also significantly related to intention to settle.

For the U.K. subsample the hypothesis that there would be a significant relationship between English examination and English Test Battery

performance is partially supported; there was a significant relationship between English examination performance and Tests 1, 2, 2 repeat, Manchester Reading Test and the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale.

(f) Rural/urban background variable

The mean scores of Jamaican subjects with a rural background were lower than those with an urban or mixed background on all tests except Test 2 repeat and the essay tests, which might support the hypothesis that there would be a significant relationship between rural/urban background and English Test Battery performance for the Jamaican subsample. Due to sample size, however, t-tests could only be carried out on the means of the urban against the mixed background group and these indicated no significant difference in test performance between those groups.

(g) Type of U.K. education background variable

The results of the t-tests indicated that the hypothesis that there would be no significant relationship between English Test Battery performance and type of U.K. education for the Jamaican subjects, is not supported. The subjects with no U.K. education performed significantly less well on Tests 1, 2 repeat and the Manchester Reading Test than those with secondary or secondary and further only and those with primary as well as secondary or secondary and further, and on Test 2 than those with secondary or secondary and further plus primary. Subjects with only secondary or secondary and further performed significantly less well on Test 1 than those with secondary or secondary and further plus primary. With regard to Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices, subjects with a U.K. primary education performed significantly better than those without. On the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale subjects with no U.K. education performed less well than those with only secondary or secondary and further and those with primary as well. The longer the U.K. education the better the subjects performed on the Listening Discrimination tests.

(h) Sample Wastage

The results of the t-tests suggest that the subjects lost from each subsample were generally representative of the final sample as regards Tests 1 and 2 performance.

(i) The separate year groups within the final sample

No significant difference was found between the performances of the year groups within each subsample on all the tests except Test 2.

(j) The comparison of Greek and Turkish subjects

Significant differences were found in favour of the Greek subjects on all five tests investigated. The number within each group was too small for much weight to be attached to these results however.

(ii) Results and suggestions for further research

The results of the present investigation are suggestive rather than conclusive. The sample size and type of data imposed limitations on the statistical analysis; it was not possible, for example, to explore further the co-variance that the t-tests and correlation matrices suggested and the different between group variances lessened the validity of the tests.[5] The analysis did, however, produce results which indicate tentative support for the basic hypothesis of the investigation, that West Indians, here represented by Jamaicans, have as great difficulty as speakers of English as a second or foreign language, represented by Greek and Turkish mother tongue speakers, in improving their command of S.B.E. as measured by the English Test Battery.

The Jamaican subsample performed significantly less well than the Greek and Turkish subsample on Tests 1 and 2, the essay tests and Manchester Reading Test. This might indicate that interference from Jamaican dialect is as great as from Greek and Turkish mother tongues and that a Jamaican student will require specialised help with English to at least the same extent as a Greek or Turkish speaking student. As the

Jamaicans performed less well than the Greek and Turkish speakers a case could possibly be made to give Jamaicans proportionately more help. From this it could be generalised that formal arrangements should be made in all British educational institutions to provide West Indians with specialised English teaching in the same way that help is often given to those who speak English as a second or foreign language.

The correlation between the Manchester Reading Test and the other tests in the English Test Battery could indicate a common reading comprehension factor in all the English tests or an S.B.E. factor in the Manchester Reading Test. Further research would be needed to establish the nature of the relationship between the tests. However, the results of the present investigation demonstrate the need to provide Jamaican, and probably all West Indians, with additional help in reading.[6]

None of the subsamples, as a whole, made significant progress in S.B.E. as measured by Test 2 and very little progress as measured by the essay tests. The reason for this could originate from the experimental design or the tests used to measure progress. The subjects were required to complete a fairly large number of tests which might not have seemed of direct relevance to their course work.[7] It is likely that they might have lost interest in the experiment by the time they came to repeat Test 2 and the Essay test. Boredom might have affected their performance and depressed their scores. Alternatively, the tests might have accurately reflected a lack of progress in S.B.E. In further education colleges most students are enrolled on one-year courses which are designed to prepare them for examinations, most often 'O' level G.C.E. This situation was discussed in Chapter 4. A common problem is that the student has an inadequate command of S.B.E. for the purposes of his course. He insists on concentrating on examination work, however, even in English lessons and it is consequently not possible to spend sufficient time on language

work aimed at improving his personal English language proficiency. This is equally true of the West Indian dialect speaker as of the student for whom English is a second or foreign language. It is, therefore, possible that during the testing period the majority of the subjects made only slight improvement in English due to the restrictions on teaching English as a second language imposed by the pressures of the examination curricula. This is a situation that requires further exploration as it might go a long way toward explaining the high examination failure rate in Colleges for Further Education and Technical Colleges where the majority of students are not mother tongue speakers of English.

For the Jamaican subsample more than for the Greek/Turkish, length of education in the U.K. appeared to affect their performance on the English Test Battery and in public examinations in English, and being born in the U.K. was significantly related with Manchester Reading Test and Test 1 performance. Primary education appears to be of particular value in improving the Jamaicans' command of S.B.E. The writer had not anticipated this result; on the contrary, the hypothesis had been put forward that length of U.K. education would not affect their English test performance due to the strong interference from their dialect, reinforced by the language environment at home, and to the lack of adequate specialised English teaching in British schools. However, the present investigation does indicate that being brought up and educated in the U.K. has a positive influence on the Jamaicans' proficiency in S.B.E. Further research is needed into this but it does suggest that the new generation of children of West Indian parentage schooled in Britain might succeed in learning to operate S.B.E. as an alternative code to their parents' dialect, especially if they receive specialised English teaching. The importance of acquiring S.B.E. is evidenced by the significant relationship between the performance of the three subsamples on the English Test Battery and in public examinations in English.

Other factors affecting the English Test Battery performance of the subsamples could not be adequately explored as the data was not suitable for analysis of variance and co-variance. The correlation matrices indicated possible co-variance with regard to the listening discrimination tests and intelligence tests. The Jamaican and Greek/Turkish subsamples as a whole performed less well than the U.K. subsample on the listening discrimination tests, which might indicate a need to explore further the effect of accuracy of listening discrimination on proficiency in S.B.E. Ability to discriminate between phonemes increased with length of U.K. education which again implies that interference from West Indian dialect can be partially counteracted by a British education.

The lack of a significant positive correlation between performance on Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices and the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale for the Greek/Turkish subsample suggests depressed scores on the verbal test through the subjects' lack of proficiency in S.B.E. A significant positive correlation was found for the U.K. subsample. For the Jamaican subsample, however, there was also a significant positive correlation, though lower than that for the U.K. subjects, between the verbal and non-verbal intelligence tests. The Jamaican subsample performed less well than the Greek/Turkish subsample on most of the tests in the English Test Battery and the correlation between the verbal and non-verbal tests, in their case, is due to depressed scores on the non-verbal test rather than to an absence from linguistic handicap resulting in higher scores than the Greek/Turkish subsample on the verbal test. The mean score of the Jamaican subsample on both the verbal and non-verbal tests is lower than those of the other subsamples. Research has indicated[8] a verbal element in Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices but this cannot adequately account for the Jamaican subsample performing less well than the Greek/Turkish who also have a language problem. Further research is

needed to indicate the reasons for the Jamaican subsample's relatively poor performance on the non-verbal intelligence test. There are various possible hypotheses. One is that the Jamaican dialect, functioning as a restricted code,[9] impedes cognitive development as measured by Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices. More likely explanations are the social environment of the Jamaican subjects and emotional factors. In Chapter 4 it was noted that Jamaican families, together with other West Indians, tend to live in more crowded surroundings than the Greek and Turkish Cypriot families in Britain. Table 24 in Chapter 6, Part II, Section 1 (v), indicates that this is true for the Jamaican subjects in this investigation. Many West Indians are left in the West Indies with their grandmother or aunt while their mother emigrates to find work. The economic and social pressures of life in a predominantly rural society make it difficult for the grandmother to send the child to school regularly or to spend time playing with him. Consequently the child's environment may lack sufficient stimuli to encourage his intellectual development. Often this situation continues when the child joins his mother in the U.K. He is left with a child minder who usually concerns herself only with the physical needs of her charges and does not provide materials for creative play. A Greek or Turkish speaking child is more likely to come to the U.K. with his parents and the extended patterns of his family render it less likely that he will be left with a child minder. However, Robin Oakley[10] has observed that Cypriot parents do not encourage their children to express themselves in imaginative play. This observation, too, requires further investigation. The depressed non-verbal intelligence test scores could also have been influenced by psychological factors. The culture shock experienced by the Jamaican child on arrival in the U.K. has been discussed in Chapter 1, Section 4. The effect of a white tester on the intelligence test performance of black subjects[11] should also be considered. The P.E.P. report[12]

indicated that Cypriots were subject to less prejudice in Britain than the West Indians. Could their higher scores on the non-verbal intelligence test reflect a greater self-confidence?

Other indications for further research arising from this investigation are concerned with the factors influencing the ability of West Indian students to increase their command of S.B.E. The present investigation has suggested that Jamaican subjects have as great difficulty as Greek and Turkish subjects in producing acceptable written and spoken S.B.E. and in improving their command of it. Further research is required along the lines of the present investigation to include West Indians from other islands and other language groups, possibly using different tests. The influence of length and level of U.K. education on the language of West Indians could be explored further. The written English of children and students of West Indian parentage should be analysed to establish the syntactical areas where interference from the dialect is greatest so that teaching can concentrate on them.[13] At the further education level there should be an investigation into the possible relationship between examination failure and command of English of both speakers of English as a foreign language and dialect speakers. The effects of the pressures of examination courses on English as a second language teaching should also be explored.

This investigation indicates that Jamaican students have at least as much difficulty as do Greek and Turkish-speaking ones in learning and using Standard British English, and through its study of the specific linguistic problems involved, should reinforce the need for the provision of specialised English teaching for all West Indians in British schools and colleges.

REFERENCES - CHAPTER 8

1. See Chapter 7, Section 3 (iv).
2. Discussed in Chapter 5, Section 2 (iv) (b), and Chapter 7, Section 1 (i).
3. See Chapter 7, Section 1 (i), Table 31.
4. Reported in Chapter 7, Section 3 (ii).
5. Other limitations of the investigation are discussed in Chapter 3.
6. This is discussed in Chapter 1, Section 4.
7. The administration of the tests is described in Chapters 5 and 6.
8. Reported in Chapter 6, Part I, Section 1.
9. Discussed in Chapter 1, Section 4.
10. OAKLEY, R. New Backgrounds. I.R.R. 1968. O.U.P. Discussed in Chapter 1, Section 4.
11. Research concerned with this is reported in Chapter 2, Section 4.
12. Discussed in Chapter 2, Section 1.
13. Examples of the type of errors made by the Jamaican subjects in the present investigation are given in Appendix II.

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A P P E N D I X I

CASE STUDIES

(a representative selection of the Jamaican subsample)

These case studies were compiled from information which was largely provided by the subjects themselves; a thorough check has not been made on its accuracy as this would have entailed possibly unwelcome intrusions into the home lives of the subjects and their families.

Maximum Test Scores possible:-

Test 1	100
Test 2	100
Manchester Reading Test	60
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices	60
Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale	66
Listening Discrimination 1	164
Listening Discrimination 2	164

Case 1 male subject Jamaican subsample 1972-73 sample

'My idea is to do engineering raido. T V engineer or motor engineering, but if I find myself with enough 'O' levels I would do a better job - like office work, or a buisness man.'

A shy, gentle boy, case 1 arrived in the U.K. in August 1972 and three weeks later was enrolled on a one-year General Education course. He had been born in rural Jamaica and had lived with his mother for the first three years of his life, his father having left the family home less than a year after his birth. Soon after he was three his mother came to London to find employment and he went to live with his maternal grandmother with whom he stayed until he was sixteen, when he followed his mother to England.

In Jamaica his mother had worked as a school cook, his father as a cane cutter; both had had only a rudimentary primary education and, in case 1's words, spoke 'broken English'. He himself had attended two all-age schools, both in rural areas, between the ages of six and fifteen. All his teachers had been Jamaican nationals and had probably spoken a dialect or S.J.E.

In London he was living in Clapton and having to adjust to his mother and stepfather and five half sisters, all younger than himself, aged five to nine years, born in the U.K., all of them previously unknown to him. His stepfather's work was connected with television repairs and the whole family shared two bedrooms and two living rooms. Four other people, all from the West Indies, rented rooms in the same house. There was nowhere quiet for him to study.

He had heard of the college through a careers officer, and his ambition was to gain as many 'O' levels as possible in order to get a 'good job'. Not happy with his new-found family he wanted to stay in England for a maximum of five years and then go 'home' to Jamaica to his grandmother. He mixed mainly with West Indian students and spent most of his evenings at the college, learning to play the guitar and listening to records.

In class he persevered with his studies, working particularly hard to learn 'good English' by which he meant S.B.E. He was not able to reach the standard required for 'O' level entry, however, and failed R.S.A. I English. After two years in the college he was still unable to pass any 'O' levels but gained grade three in C.S.E. English and grade two in Mathematics. Although it was recognised that he had worked steadily, he was not allowed to enrol for a third year as it was generally felt by all the staff who knew him that it would only mean more failure for him as far as 'O' level courses were concerned. He did, however, achieve one of his ambitions by obtaining employment as a clerk with a firm of accountants in the city.

Case 1 - Test scores

Test 1		69	
Test 2		73	
Test 2 repeat		59	
Essay 1	150 words	3 structural errors	9 lexical errors
Essay 2	250 "	12 "	11 " "
Picture Oral	100 "	4 errors	
Picture Written	150 "	15 "	
Manchester Reading Test		14	
Reading Test		0 errors	
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices		43	
Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale		24	
Listening Discrimination	1	152	
	2	149	

Essay 1 - MYSELF

Before I left my country, I was at a Primary school, I begin from I was six years to a infant Centre, then to this Primary school where I stayed for eight years, my last year in shool, that was 1972 when I was thinking of getting a job, I was taken away the following month to his country, I spend my first summer holiday interviewing with careers officers to get a job but then I found out that I could further my education.

At the bigining of the summer term the eight of September 1972 I was sent to this colledge, I was doing a General Education Course, This year I began a two years GCE course, that means i studied for one year, hoping to take some CSE at the end, and, then the following year I take my 'O' levels.

My idea is to do engineering raido and T V engineer or motor engineering but if I find myself with enough O' levels I would do a better job like office work or a buisness man etc.

Case 10 male subject Jamaican subsample 1972-73 sample

'My life ambition is to be a mechanical engineering. And I am making the best effort to it.....I am very proud of myself.'

Case 10 arrived to enrol at the college with a mother who appeared to be both possessive and overbearing. She brought with her his Jamaican school reports and references and during the interview insisted on personally answering all questions that were addressed to her son. It was not difficult to understand her speech but the verb inflexions, concord and some lexis conformed to Jamaican, not British standard. In spite of this she insisted that her children were 'not allowed to speak broken English at home.'

Her son had arrived in London, from Jamaica, one week before and they had met for the first time in fourteen years. When she had come to London she had left her son aged two years, together with his elder sister, with her mother and sister in Kingston. He had therefore grown to look upon his grandmother as mother. She sold vegetables in the market and his aunt was a machinist. He spent five years each at a Primary and a Junior Secondary, both in Kingston, his teachers being a mixture of Jamaican, American and Trinidadian. His school report was vague about his academic potential and his behaviour, with a telling reference to 'youthful high spirits.' Enrolled on a one-year General Education course, he attempted to disrupt most of his lessons, apparently craving for attention, however negative.

He was living in Dalston with his mother and stepfather and two younger half brothers aged eight and eleven years, born in the U.K. They shared three bedrooms and one living room and he complained that he had nowhere to study quietly.

As the term proceeded his behaviour worsened and he began to bully other students both in his group and around the college generally. He was involved in fights and narrowly escaped expulsion on a number of occasions. He did not appear willing to discuss his home situation in any detail with members of staff but it was evident that he was not happy. His written English was fairly competent but he made little effort to improve it and was not entered for any examinations. This was unfortunate as his stated ambition was to gain five '0' levels in Science subjects and only then to return to his grandmother in Jamaica.

Despite his obvious lack of enthusiasm he returned to enrol the following session but was rejected. It was suggested to him that he should try to gain admittance to a different college and make a fresh start as it was felt that he was potentially an '0' level student could he only solve his emotional and behavioural problems and settle down to work.

Case 10 - Test scores

Test 1		78		
Test 2		58		
Test 2 repeat		39		
Essay 1	150 words	5 structural errors	9 lexical errors	
Essay 2	300 "	21 "	"	8 " "
Picture Oral	50 "	1 error		
Picture Written	150 "	8 errors		
Manchester Reading Test		21		
Reading Test		1 error		
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices		16		
Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale		24		
Listening Discrimination	1	152		
	2	144		

Essay 1 - MYSELF

My name is -----. I live at --------- E.8. I am of dark complexion dark hair, and I am about 5 ft 6" tall, I use to attend the --- Junior Secondary School in Jamaica. It is situated on ---- Avenue Kinston. I live with a family of five and all of us live very happily together. My life's ambition is to be a Mechanical Engineering. But I am making the best effort to it.

My hobbies are table tennis, swimming and cricket. I like these games best because they give me lot of energy and muccles in my body. I use to do waight lifting but I stop and go on to something more easier for me.

I am very proud of myself. The subject I liked best is math English sociel studies, General Science, Civics.

Case 12 male subject Jamaican subsample 1972-73 sample

Case 12 enrolled on a one-year General Education course, having attended a London secondary school for four years. He had a London accent and his written work, barely legible, contained many spelling errors and a mixture of 'cockney' and Jamaican dialect derived structural errors. Always cheerful and enthusiastic he struggled to improve his English but made very little progress.

He had been brought up in a rural area of Jamaica with five younger half sisters by his maternal grandparents, his parents having emigrated to the U.K. when he was five years old. His grandfather was a foreman with a bauxite company, his father had worked in a bicycle shop in Jamaica and his mother had been a dressmaker. All had experienced only a few years of primary level education. He himself had attended a rural primary school between the ages of six and eight years, and then a rural Junior school until he was twelve years old when he came, with three of his half sisters, to London.

In London he had lived in Stoke Newington with his parents and half sisters in a house with three bedrooms and three living rooms. He professed to be happy with the accommodation and felt he could study at home undisturbed.

At school he passed three C.S.E's, Art, Social Studies and Metal Craft, and decided to enrol at the college when he heard its Principal speak at his school. His ambition was to become an Electrical Engineer

and he wished to stay at the college until he "got '0' levels", no matter how many years it took. During his interview his mother also pressed for him to study until he obtained '0' level passes. She intended to return to Jamaica with her family ten years later and wished her son to have secured a 'good job' by then.

At the college he mixed mainly with West Indians; his main interests outside were based on his membership of an army cadet corps and his parents encouraged him in this, paying for him to visit Germany with the group. However, despite the parental backing and his own perseverance and enthusiasm his English did not substantially improve, and although he spent two years on a General Education course he was not entered for any examinations and came no nearer to achieving his ambitions. He did, however, obtain employment with a company concerned with television servicing and however limited his contribution to the work, he seemed satisfied and proud of his job.

Case 12 - Test scores

Test 1		36		
Test 2		12		
Test 2 repeat		21		
Essay 1	150 words		16 structural errors	25 lexical errors
Essay 2	200 "		11 " "	60 " "
Picture Oral	100 "		3 errors	
Picture Written	100 "		4 "	
Manchester Reading Test		7		
Reading Test			14 errors	
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices		40		
Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale		22		
Listening Discrimination	1	125		
	2	114		

Essay 1 is reproduced in the section on T-unit measure. (Appendix VII)

Case 31 female subject Jamaican subsample 1972-73 sample

'My hobbies is to be come a nurse.'

Case 31 was eleven years old when she came to London from a rural, inland area of Jamaica. She had been living with her grandmother and three brothers, one older, one younger than herself, since the age of seven years. Before that she had lived with her parents but they had left their children behind when they emigrated to the U.K. After they left she went to an all-age school near her grandmother's house and stayed there, attending sporadically according to how much help her grandmother needed in the house, until she herself left Jamaica and came with one younger brother to join her mother in Stoke Newington.

Her parents had separated a few years earlier and her mother, a domestic working in a hospital, had remarried. The new 'father' she and her brother met on their arrival in London already had two daughters from two previous liaisons. He worked as a ticket collector with British Rail. The six of them shared a three-bedroomed house with one living room. She was reasonably happy with the set-up and said she was able to study undisturbed if she wished.

A few weeks after her arrival in London she entered a local secondary school where she eventually passed two C.S.E's with low grades, social studies and Art. She mixed mainly with West Indian school children and her interests outside school centred on her church, the Church of God, where the congregation was also mainly West Indian. At school she heard about the college and decided to enrol, hoping that it would help her to achieve her ambition to gain 'O' levels in Human Biology, Mathematics and English and then to commence training as a nurse. Unfortunately her English was not of the required standard for entry to the Pre-Hospital Training course and she was enrolled on a one-year non-examination General Education course.

She was articulate and keen in class, always ready to lead a discussion. Her written English, however, affected by interference from Jamaican dialect, did not improve sufficiently to enable her to start hospital training and it was well below 'O' level standard. Gradually she became aware that she was not going to be able to realise her ambition and she switched her interest to the Business Studies Department. Then, in the final term of her first year, she became pregnant. Her mother, angry and upset at first, eventually agreed to adopt the baby as her own and to send her daughter back to college in the following September. Case 31 was therefore enrolled on the first year of a two-year commercial course. The pressures of home life, with the newborn baby, however, were too much, and after frequent absences she finally left towards the end of the first term and took a part-time job in a supermarket.

Case 31 - Test scores

Test 1		61		
Test 2		49		
Test 2 repeat		57		
Essay 1	100 words	7 structural errors	7 lexical errors	
Essay 2	200 "	12 " "	14 " "	
Picture Oral	50 "	5 errors		
Picture Written	200 "	10 "		
Manchester Reading Test		16		
Reading Test		10 errors		
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices		44		
Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale		20		
Listening Discrimination 1		146		
2		134		

Essay 1 - MYSELF

My name is -----. I am five feet two inche tall. My eye are brown and my heair is black. I was born in Jamaica and I have been over hear five years. I used to go to ----- school. I am living in London with my mother and fater. My hobbies is to be come a nurse. I like to play game like tennis ronders. I am 16 year old. I have 2 sistr and 4 brothers. My address is ------ N.16. My oldes sists is 7 year old and my oldes brother is 19.

Case 39 male subject Jamaican subsample 1972-73 sample

'The reason why I am at college is to further my education and to do my best in passing some O levels so that I could get a good job I mean the job I would like best. My ambitions is to become a Electrical Engineer, or a telephone technician.'

Case 39 enrolled at the college one week after leaving his home in Kingston, Jamaica. He had lived with his maternal aunt and younger sister from the age of eight years, when his mother came to London. His aunt was a dressmaker, had attended Primary school for a few years only and spoke what he referred to as 'broken English.' He himself attended a primary school from the age of six to thirteen and a Junior Secondary from thirteen to fifteen. He was sixteen when he arrived in London. All his teachers in Kingston had been Jamaican and he criticised his own education, complaining that the schools had been crowded, with several classes in one room in the Primary, and understaffed.

In London he was living in Clapton in a large four-bedroomed house, with his mother, natural father (who had joined his mother and married her in the U.K.), and sister who was two years younger than himself. His father was a building sub-contractor and a lay preacher in the Pentecostal church which has a predominantly West Indian congregation.

Mixing mainly with West Indians, in college and at home, Case 39 found it difficult to improve his command of written S.B.E. His ambition was to become an Electrical Engineer and he struggled at the college for three years to obtain 'O' levels in English and Science subjects. He did not intend to return to Jamaica as he felt there was 'too much violence' there but hoped to make his permanent home in England.

He was pleasant and studious, very popular with both staff and students. He learned to play the guitar and developed an interest in pottery at which he was considered skilled. All staff who came into contact with him were concerned about his welfare and agreed that he deserved to achieve his

ambition. The deficiencies of his past education hampered him, however, and he was unable to reach 'O' level standard in any subject, even after three years of day attendance supplemented by evening classes. Finally, age nineteen years, he left the college and it was strongly rumoured that he had married and taken a routine factory day job while still studying Science 'O' levels in the evening.

Case 39 - Test scores

Test 1		82		
Test 2		69		
Test 2 repeat		60		
Essay 1	200 words		2 structural errors	5 lexical errors
Essay 2	150 "		2 " "	4 " "
Picture Oral	100 "		7 errors	
Picture Written	150 "		2 "	
Manchester Reading Test		14		
Reading Test			1 error	
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices		45		
Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale		31		
Listening Discrimination	1	152		
	2	147		

Essay 1 - MYSELF

My name is ----. I was born in Jamaica at the university college hospital of the West Indies. There I staid for a few week. I am about 5'4" tall, have stort black hair straight face brown eyes have a medium body weighing about 138 lbs speaks broken and standard english and I am a colourd or negro.

At the age of five, I went to an infant school until I was eleven years old. At the age of eleven I went to a primary school, where I stayed until I was thirteen. After being at the primary school for two years I was sent to a secondary school where I stayed until I was fifteen years of age. The reason why I am at college is to further my education and to do my best in passing some O levels so that I could get a good job I mean the job I would like best. My ambitions is to become a Electrical Engineer, or a telephone technician.

Case 40 female subject Jamaican subsample 1972-73 sample

'When I was in Jamaica all my mind and thought was in England sometimes I said to myself I wish if I was in England and it happen that my mom, send for me.... am trying very hard to be a secretary, that in case I should leave this country I have something to live off.'

A solemn, taciturn girl, case 40 seemed to struggle continuously in an attempt to understand life at the college. Nearly always late for her classes, unable to memorize her timetable, she was often found wandering aimlessly around the building when she should have been in class.

Born in rural Jamaica she had lived with her mother and two sisters until she was three years, when her mother came to London. She and her sisters then moved in with her paternal grandmother and her father, who was a shopkeeper. Between the ages of five and fifteen she attended two all-age schools near her new home, the staff of which were all Jamaican. Then, aged fifteen years, she left for London to join her mother. Her sisters remained with their grandmother and her father emigrated to America.

In London she was living in Stoke Newington with her mother, step-father, and four half brothers, aged between three and six, all born in England. They shared a four-bedroom house but she complained that she 'couldn't work' at home, presumably through lack of somewhere quiet to study undisturbed. Her mother worked as a hospital orderly, her step-father in a car factory.

She had been living in London for nine months before she enrolled at the college on a two-year commercial course. She did not attend regularly and was probably helping her mother with the young children. She spoke a form of Jamaican dialect and was not easy to understand except by other Jamaicans from the same area. In turn, she could not understand her teachers who had to repeat instructions several times to her individually before she could start work. She mixed mainly with other Jamaican students in the college and outside her social life was connected with

the Pentecostal Church where the congregation was West Indian, so there seemed little likelihood of her improving her command of spoken or written S.B.E.

She intended to stay in London for about ten years and then to return 'home' to Jamaica. Before then she wished to obtain a 'good' job. Her ambition was to be a secretary but her written English was not sufficiently competent for her to learn shorthand, or to take any examinations. It was considered unlikely that she would obtain any kind of employment in an office.

During her first year she made little progress in any of her classes and she left during the second year of her course. Her friends reported that she was working, stacking shelves in a supermarket.

Case 40 - Test scores

Test 1		25		
Test 2		31		
Test 2 repeat		28		
Essay 1	200 words		8 structural errors	10 lexical errors
Essay 2	50 "		4 " "	0 " "
Picture Oral	50 "		0 errors	
Picture Written	250 "		8 "	
Manchester Reading Test		5		
Reading Test			1 error	
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices		26		
Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale		19		
Listening Discrimination	1	101		
	2	120		

Essay 1 - MYSELF

My name is ----. I was born in Jamaica. I use to attend the Junior Secoundery Sch am seventeen years of age, am of a dark completion am 5ft 4 ins tall when I was in Jamaica I use to live with my grandmather then my mom decided was to send for me. I arrived in the country last year fuly and now am attending Hackney and stoke newington college, I like it very much am trying very hard to be a secretary, that in case I should leave this country I have something to live off. The thing I found intresting over hear is oppertunity there is a lot of things to do, it is relly a big

help to me, the thing I like there is a lots of places to go when I was in Jamaica I use to go parties but not has often as over heard since I came over I can see it is relly driffernt from Jamaica. when I was in Jamaica all my mind and thought was in England sometimes I said to my self I wish if I was in England and it happen that my mom send for me.

Case 43 female subject Jamaican subsample 1972-73 sample

Having lived in Stoke Newington for seven years, case 43 seemed to be a contented, emotionally stable girl. She had been born in rural Jamaica and had lived with her maternal grandmother from the age of four years, when her mother left for London, and she was nine years when she joined her. She had no brothers and sisters and had attended the local primary school in Jamaica.

In Stoke Newington she lived with her mother and stepfather in a three-bedroom house which they shared with two cousins. Her mother was working in a local factory, her father was a painter and decorator. She appeared to be very happy at home and able to study on her own. She had attended a primary and secondary school in Hackney and had passed C.S.E. English, Social Studies, Art and Leathercraft; she could not remember the grades. At the college she was following a two-year commercial course, hoping to obtain a 'good' job. She did not wish to return to Jamaica as she felt the 'standard of living was too low.' She spoke with a London accent but her written English showed the influence of S.J.E. syntax.

Although she failed her English 'O' level twice, she obtained a pass in British Constitution 'O' level, and started work in the library of one of the colleges of London University. She then followed a one-year evening course, attending two evenings a week, and was entered for four 'O' levels, English, Economic History, Sociology and Family and Community Studies, all of which she failed. Undaunted, she proposed to 'try again' the following year.

Case 43 - Test scores

Test 1		77		
Test 2		80		
Test 2 repeat		71		
Essay 1	250 words		8 structural errors	10 lexical errors
Essay 2	200 "		1 " "	2 " "
Picture Oral	100 "		0 errors	
Picture Written	200 "		4 "	
Manchester Reading Test		17		
Reading Test			1 error	
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices		37		
Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale		38		
Listening Discrimination 1		162		
2		158		

Essay 1 - MYSELF

My personal choice of clothes varied personally, I like wearing plain fasionable clothes.

The clothes some younger people wears just does'nt appeal to me. My taste for clothes is quiet different. I am nineteen years old. I was born in Jamaica West Indies, I came to England when I was seven years old. And have lived here for the past elven years.

My interests in life is to tour the world get married, and have children. Then I hope to return home to Jamaica to take up permanantly To work and live in the sunshine I shall probable miss England but I suppose its life. I do not like the British weather in the summer its far too hot and in the winter its sometimes below freezing point.

There are six of us in my family. there are only four children. My brother is fourteen years old My sister elven and theyoungest two years old. My faither is a painter and decorator. My mother is a qualified hair dresser and does domestic work.

I myself is a student at Hackney and Stoke newington college F.E. I have been here for nearly two year. When I fineally leave I would like to take up goverment work. I have good ambitions I only hope that I suceed.

Case 51 female subject Jamaican subsample 1972-73 sample

'why I would like to have a certificate in English is because a secretary will meet all kind of people in an office and I will have to know how to express myself in the right way and I will not be able to do so if I cannot speak proper English.'

A sophisticated, articulate student, case 51 had been living in London for six months before she was enrolled on a two-year business studies course in September 1971. She had lived in rural, coastal Jamaica with her mother and younger brother and sister for eight years, and when her mother came to England she and her siblings stayed in Kingston with her maternal grandmother, aunt and cousin until, at fifteen years, she joined her mother in Clapton. Her aunt was a shop assistant with primary level education only, and she had attended a rural all-age school from six years to eight years and another all-age school, in Kingston, from eight to fourteen years. All her teachers had been Jamaican.

In London she lived with her mother, father, brother and two sisters, one of the latter having been born in England. Her mother was a Wages Clerk and her father a Post Office Engineer and they shared a home with six bedrooms. She seemed contented with her life in England and had no desire to return to Jamaica as she claimed that it had 'changed' and become too violent.

Although she described the language of her parents and siblings as 'patois' and although she mixed mainly with West Indian students at the college, her own written and spoken English did not contain many syntactical deviations from S.B.E. and she seemed aware of the structural and lexical differences between S.B. and S.J.E. Under test conditions, however, interference from S.J.E. and its dialects seemed greater.

In her first year in the college she failed the Certificate in Office Studies but passed Pitman's Typing and Commerce, Stage 1. In her second year she passed the C.O.S. and R.S.A. Stage II Typing. According to records compiled from a questionnaire sent by Hackney I.L.E.A. careers

office to all students leaving the college, she first obtained employment as a temporary typist with an employment agency and then as a typist with a Bank.

Case 51 - Test scores

Test 1		82		
Test 2		82		
Test 2 repeat		71		
Essay 1	200 words		5 structural errors	3 lexical errors
Essay 2	150 "		3 " "	2 " "
Picture Oral	100 "		2 errors	
Picture Written	150 "		7 "	
Manchester Reading Test		19		
Reading Test			2 errors	
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices		38		
Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale		34		
Listening Discrimination	1	159		
	2	153		

Essay 1 - MYSELF

My name is ----. I am 18 years of age, I came to this country from Jamaica in 1968.

I attended ---- Secondary School for girls, for 2 years and I like it very much, I studed English, Typing, Commerce and Maths.

When I left School I wanted to continue my education, because I would like to be a secretary and to be a secretary I have to be good at English and other subjacts but the main one is my English.

I have taken C.S.E. in English, needlework and maths but unfortunately I fail the English. I also took pitmans Typing 1,2 and commerce 1 and I pass the three of them.

I would like to take G.C.E. and R.S.A. Examination in English and O'level in commerce, R.S.A. and Pitmans typing.

Why I would like to have a certificate in English is because a secretary will meet all kind of people in a office and I will have to know how to express myself in the right way and I will not be able to do so if I cannot speak proper English.

Case 53 male subject Jamaican subsample 1972-73 sample

Case 53 seemed unable to adjust to his life in London. He had arrived in England at the beginning of September and was enrolled at the college a few days later.

In Jamaica he had lived in a rural village with his maternal grandparents, uncle, brother and three male cousins since the age of four when his mother had emigrated to England. His grandfather had been a garage mechanic and he had spent his leisure time helping him and developing an interest in car maintenance which formed the background to his ambition to be a motor mechanic. He had attended three different rural primary schools but admitted that he had frequently played truant to help his grandfather.

On arrival in London he and his brother met his Trinadadian stepfather for the first time and also his mother whom he had not seen for twelve years. He confessed that he did not like either of them and that he found it difficult to think of the woman who met him at the airport as his mother. She worked as a machinist and his stepfather was a plumber. They had only three rooms - bedroom, living and kitchen, to share with him and his brother. In the house, which was in Finsbury Park, were ten other flats and bedsitters and he felt angry with his mother for bringing him to London to live in such accommodation.

To add to his difficulties in English, his spoken English was almost incomprehensible to anyone who was not from Jamaica, as his dialect and accent were so strong. He seemed to have little knowledge of S.J.E. let alone S.B.E. The staff at the college and most of the students could not understand him and presumably he in turn could not understand them. His written English was similarly affected by interference from Jamaican dialect. In addition, the fact that he had not attended school regularly meant that he had not learned to spell or to read competently.

He was enrolled on a one-year non-examination General Education course and he soon aroused the anger of staff and students by his anti-social behaviour. He would come late for lessons, swear at staff and students and generally seemed to provoke arguments. Every evening he hung around the college buildings and was involved in numerous small fights. Finally he was dismissed from the college in his final term for participation in an attempted theft on the premises and for general misbehaviour. His mother, called to the college to discuss her son's situation, confessed that she didn't understand him and that neither she nor her husband could control him.

He had wanted to become a motor mechanic but even had his behaviour been different he would have been unlikely to achieve his ambition on account of his written English. After he left the college other students reported that he was doing unskilled work in a local factory.

Case 53 - Test scores

Test 1		65		
Test 2		35		
Test 2 repeat		40		
Essay 1	200 words		9 structural errors	11 lexical errors
Essay 2	200 "		11 " "	25 " "
Picture Oral	50 "		0 errors	
Picture Written	150 "		6 "	
Manchester Reading Test		12		
Reading Test			2 errors	
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices		39		
Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale		26		
Listening Discrimination 1		135		
2		121		

Essay 1 - MYSELF

My name is ----. I was born in Jamaica 1956 I was brought up in a small district called May Day as all other boys I went to --- Primary school, were I spent most of my school years, during those years I did not take any examnation but I did my lesson and make all diffrent sorts of things example making valse from cow horn. but as time goes on I began to realise that I was getting old and soon have to leave so I began

to think of what I would do in the future I think at first that I would like to be a macanic so I began to learn it at my grandfather place, soon after 11 or 10 munths I got a letter from my mother saying she would like to have me over hare with her so I came over and changed my mind about my trade in sted I though I would raily like to do Radio and televison seversing and woudent change my mind again.

Case 55 female subject Jamaican subsample 1972-73 sample

Case 55 had been born in rural Jamaica where she lived with her mother and two younger brothers. When she was six years old her mother took her to see her aunt and uncle and left her there 'for the day', telling her that she was going to the market. She didn't return, however, and made no attempt to contact her children until one year later when she wrote, telling them that she was living in London and would 'send for them' when she could. That happened seven years later and in the meantime case 55 stayed with her aunt, uncle, brothers and eleven cousins. She had attended a rural infant school while with her mother and, in the town, she went to the local all-age school. Often, however, she stayed away from school to help her aunt who sold fruit and vegetables in the market.

When she was thirteen years old she came to London with her two brothers and lived in Clapton in a three-bedroomed house with her parents. Her mother was a dressmaker and her father worked in a car factory. Both spoke what she referred to as 'broken English' at home. It was her mother who encouraged her to enrol at the college after she had left the London secondary school which she had attended for two years. Both her parents were anxious that their daughter should receive as 'much education as possible.' They had not felt confident about the standard of teaching in the secondary school and wanted her to have 'another chance.' They seemed aware of the amount that their daughter had to 'catch up' in order to pass any examinations but unaware of the difficulties involved in trying to do so at her age. She was

barely literate. Her written English contained numerous structural and lexical errors, some due to interference from Jamaican dialect, others due to the general deficiencies in her previous education.

She wanted to be a nurse and her parents were willing for her to stay in full-time education for as long as was necessary to gain the qualifications needed before she could begin training. It soon became evident, however, after a few weeks on a General Education course, that she would be unlikely to attain the required standard. Realizing that she might not achieve her ambition to enter nursing she decided she would be a typist. After one year on the General Education course, however, her written English was not acceptable for entry to a business studies course. Refusing to leave, she stayed on for another year on the General Education course. She struggled with her English and made a small amount of progress but not enough to satisfy the requirements of the Business Studies Department. She was then eighteen years old and still keen to stay on. Her parents were still unwilling to accept that their daughter might not pass any examinations and again begged the college to allow her to stay.

Finally she was persuaded, partly by a careers officer, that she should enter employment and only continue her studies on a part-time basis at evening class. It was felt that although her written English was still weak she might be able to punch computer cards and when this work was described to her she became quite enthusiastic about it. Unfortunately, although interviews were arranged for her, she was not successful.

Believing it to be in her interest, the staff of the college refused to take her back for a further year on a full-time course. She did, however, enrol on evening courses in English and Typing while working in a supermarket during the day. She still hoped to achieve her ambition to pass some examinations and work in an office but she seemed as far as ever from achieving it.

Case 55 - Test scores

Test 1		59		
Test 2		33		
Test 2 repeat		41		
Essay 1	100 words		6 structural errors	15 lexical errors
Essay 2	150 "		19 " "	18 " "
Picture Oral	100 "		9 errors	
Picture Written	300 "		22 "	
Manchester Reading Test		10		
Reading Test			12 errors	
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices		28		
Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale		21		
Listening Discrimination	1	142		
	2	128		

Essay 1 - MYSELF

My name is ----. I am five feet ten an ½. I live at ----. I was born in Jamaica were I come from my moth and father also born there.

I came to england because my mother and father want us up hear, I came to england I have been going to school I learn quite a few thing there, I have been going to ---- nealy four year I have spent most of my school time in Hospital for my heye. I have to attended there. Still, I would like to take all of these subject, and I would like to do nurseing,

I find england verry could because I am not use to it I more like to be in my corntry, because the wetherslimite there because it is more warmere.

Case 70 female subject Jamaican subsample 1973-74 sample

'At the moment I am in college trying to make something good out of myself so that noone can push me around.'

A lively, pre-possessed girl, case 70, had only been in London one week before she came to enrol on a General Education course at the college. She had been living in an urban area with her maternal grandmother and two sisters since her mother came to England when she was four years old. In Jamaica, she had attended a primary school from four to eleven years and a Junior Secondary from eleven to fourteen. She had enjoyed school and had attended regularly, her grandmother encouraging her to do so.

In London she was living in Stoke Newington, sharing three bedrooms with her mother, stepfather, sister and two brothers, born in the U.K. She was not happy and disliked her stepfather whom she described as selfish and strict. Her mother was an unregistered child-minder during the day and she was often asked to stay away from college to help with the children. She was unable to obtain a grant as her stepfather did not wish to sign the application form as he would then have to declare his income. Neither his wife nor children had much idea what he earned. Case 70's mother was a gentle, pleasant woman who seemed scared of her husband. She had had her first child in Jamaica when she was seventeen years old and Case 70's father had had many other children, was 'involved' in several households and had a legal wife in another area of the island. Her husband in London also kept a 'common law wife' in another part of London.

In the college, case 70 worked steadily and was popular with both staff and students. Her written and spoken English contained deviations from S.B.E. but her spelling was sound and her written style sophisticated. At the end of the first year she was accepted into the Business Studies Department for a two-year course. Her stepfather, however, again refused to sign her grant forms. She took a job during the summer but he attempted to commandeer all her earnings as a contribution towards the general house-

keeping and she was unable to save much to help support her during the following term. Her mother was finally persuaded to sign the grant forms and this was accepted by the I.L.E.A. Case 70 was therefore able to enrol on the two-year business studies course and is apparently making progress. She and her younger sister have, however, left home and are living in rented accommodation. She hopes to complete the course and obtain employment as a typist.

Case 70 - Test scores

Test 1		69		
Test 2		31		
Test 2 repeat		64		
Essay 1	200 words	7	structural errors	4 lexical errors
Essay 2	200 "	19	" "	15 " "
Picture Oral	50 "	5	errors	
Picture Written	150 "	8	"	
Manchester Reading Test		10		
Reading Test		1	error	
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices		13		
Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale		27		
Listening Discrimination	1	159		
	2	144		

Essay 1 - MYSELF

My name is ---, I am 4'11" tall, I am fear and have long hair, I am 16 years old, I was born and was raised in Jamaica. The last school I had attended to is High School, I was in 7th grade. Its a very nice school but one thing I didn't like about it were the difficulties with the teachers.

At the moment I am in colledge trying to make something good out of myself so that no one can push me around. The colledge I attend to is Hackney and Stoke Newington Colledge. My reason for going to colledge is to further my Education, and mostly to learn some proper English and Maths. Without these two subjects I can not get a good job. Like for instance I want to become a typist and in order to get this kind of job I have to know proper English, know shorthand, type fast and properly.

Then if I live and I get a job I decided to go back on vacation, then come back for a couple of years about 4 or 3 then go to New york. Then if for the future and I have any kids I will then come back to London and make them get their Education up here.

Case 87 female subject Jamaican subsample 1973-74 sample

A temperamental girl, her apparent self-confidence maskingan acutely sensitive nature, case 87 soon got on the wrong side of most of the staff in the college.

Aged seventeen years when she enrolled on a one-year education course, she had been living in London for ten years attending a succession of schools. She had been born in an isolated mountain village in Jamaica and at two-years-old had been left in the care of her maternal grandmother, aunt and two sisters while her mother came to England. Five years later she was summoned to join her mother and stepfather in Clapton.

Her first experience of school was in England and she never managed to settle down in any of the schools she subsequently attended. By the age of twelve she was officially labelled 'uncontrollable' and was sent to a children's home, the first of five. As with the schools she was transferred from one to another and at fourteen years she became pregnant and had a baby which was subsequently adopted. For two years before she entered college she had been living alone under a care order which involved regular contact with a social worker and a weekly maintenance grant.

In some ways she seemed independent and well able to look after herself, in others she appeared to be highly insecure. Her written English was fairly competent. It contained deviations from the British standard which could be explained in terms of interference from S.J.E. but her spelling was fairly accurate and her syntax consistent. When it was suggested to her that she might take an examination, however, she appeared

horrified and declared that she 'would never be able to pass an exam.' It appeared that she had been told that she was an academic failure so many times that she had come to accept it as true. She did, however, have an ambition and that was to work in an office. She had experienced shop work and had not enjoyed it. Arrangements were made to transfer her into the Business Studies Department onto a two-year course.

During the first year her attendance was sporadic. She was usually late for classes and angered staff by refusing to carry out instructions and by 'answering back' when reprimanded. As a result she was not allowed to register for the second year of the course and seemed genuinely surprised when it was explained to her that this was because of her frequent absence and 'insolent' behaviour. For a while she continued to drift in and out of the college during the day and evening. Eventually she obtained work in what she described as a 'fashion boutique' and her visits to the college gradually ceased.

Case 87 - Test scores

Test 1		75		
Test 2		37		
Test 2 repeat		33		
Essay 1	200 words		14 structural errors	4 lexical errors
Essay 2	50 "		2 " "	1 " "
Picture Oral	50 "		1 error	
Picture Written	150 "		12 errors	
Manchester Reading Test		10		
Reading Test			2 errors	
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices		44		
Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale		18		
Listening Discrimination	1	142		
	2	148		

Essay 1 - MYSELF

I am sixteen years old I was born 17 June 1957. I came to England went I was seven year old. I came to stay will my mother that was 1964 went I came I went to school the same week by the time I was fifteen I went about nine or ten different schools. went I was 12 I went into to a children home than I went to five different home the one I like best was

---- that was in N.10. I went to live on my own at the age of fifteen that I went to work my first I work at ---- pools then I went to work in a shop that was ---- in Wood Green, and after that I work at different places. I was born in J.A. I have 2 boys and i sister there and live with my mother. there are nine year between me and Roger. I don't know where my father is the late time I had seen my father I was 2 year old.

Case 91 female subject Jamaican subsample 1973-74 sample

'I lived up to my ambition until I am able to further my education in Hackney and stok newingtoncollage untill I am able to be a good profficinal that I can go back to Jamaica.'

Case 91 was a friendly, lively girl who had arrived in London only one week before she came to the college and enrolled on a one-year General Education course. She had wanted to enter the Business Studies Department but her written English was not considered sufficiently accurate for her to do so. Born in rural Jamaica she had lived with her mother, grandmother and younger brother and sister until she was six years old when her mother left for England without warning the two young children. Four years after she had left, case 91 received a card for her tenth birthday and a letter explaining that she would one day join her mother in Tottenham. This she did when she was sixteen years old.

In Jamaica she had attended a primary school from six to nine years and a Junior Secondary from nine years until just before she left for England. She had often stayed at home to help her grandmother and at sixteen years she realized how much 'education' she had missed and came to the college to 'catch up'. She was living in Tottenham with her mother, an auxiliary nurse, and three half brothers and sisters and with her 'common law stepfather' and his two young children. They lived in a cramped three-bedroom council house and she was often called upon to help with the younger children. In the evening she worked in a factory and

gave most of her earnings to her mother to help feed and clothe the younger children. She hated her stepfather whom she described as a violent man. Her mother, when she visited the college, explained that she wished to separate from him but that she was scared to do so. He apparently kept most of his earnings to himself and yet resented the presence of case 91 in the house, even though she contributed her earnings to the housekeeping. Finally he turned both her and her mother out of the house and a court case ensued.

During all this upheaval case 91 struggled to keep up with her course work at the college. Her written English was often incomprehensible, however. There were many deviations from S.B.E. and many spelling errors. Her spoken English contained many elements of Jamaican dialect and she described the first language of her family as 'broken English'. Even if she had been free from difficulties at home it is unlikely that she could have made sufficient progress to take any examinations or to enter the Business Studies Department the following year.

Towards the end of the third term she was herself involved in a court case when she was accused of malicious wounding. There was little evidence against her, however, and she was acquitted. This, together with the other disturbances in her life, contributed to her difficulties at college and she decided to leave at the end of the year. She hoped to obtain employment as a computer punch card operator but was not successful and began work with a football Pools Company, checking coupons.

Case 91 - Test scores

Test 1		51		
Test 2		36		
Test 2 repeat		30		
Essay 1	150 words		6 structural errors	10 lexical errors
Essay 2	200 "		44 " "	8 " "
Picture Oral	50 "		5 errors	
Picture Written	200 "		11 "	
Manchester Reading Test		2		
Reading Test			13 errors	
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices		13		
Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale		17		
Listening Discrimination 1		86		
2		91		

Essay 1 - MYSELF

My name is ---- I am 5 feet 2 ins I have got a clair complexion my hair are block my eyes. are dark brown I am seventeen years old I was educated in Jamaica. I was arrived in this country nineteen seventy three. And I have been to hackney and stoke newington collage the 10th September to further my education to be a nurse.

My obby at the moment is to do leather craft needle work and jewils craft I am a very ambistious girl I am very poor my mom she is very poor also my dad. They boaths got a large family but I lived up to my ambition untill I am able to further my education in hackney and Stoke newington collage untill I am able to be a good prefficinal that I can go back to Jamaica.

Case 93 female subject Jamaican subsample 1973-74 sample

'I am very intelligent in my lesson and show good work.'

Case 93 was a tall well-built girl for whom every physical movement seemed an enormous effort. She was slow moving and spoke slowly. Often she would sit for long periods staring blankly ahead of her. She was, however, also capable of intense concentration and could sit for equally long periods, completing a series of language exercises, for example, seemingly unaware of her surroundings.

She had been born in urban Jamaica and had lived for seven years with her mother, brother and sister until her mother emigrated to England and she and her siblings went to stay with her maternal grandmother. From the age of six to thirteen years she attended a primary school and from thirteen to sixteen years an all-age. At both the staff were all Jamaican. She attended regularly and enjoyed her time at school. When she was sixteen her mother sent for her to join her. Her siblings remained in Jamaica and she arrived in London in August; enrolling at the college three weeks later. She wished to join a business studies course but her written English was not considered to be of a sufficiently high standard and so she was enrolled on a one-year General Education course.

In London she was living in a house in Stoke Newington which was divided into bedsitters and flats. She and her mother and father, who was sick and unemployed, shared two bedrooms. She seemed happy with the accommodation and got on well with her parents. She spoke what she described as 'broken English' at home and also at college where her closest friends were West Indian. Her interests outside the college were based on her church, the Church of God, where the congregation was mainly Jamaican.

Her own speech was somewhere along the continuum from S.J.E. to dialect. Most of the time it was easily understood by the staff at the college and she, in turn, appeared to understand them.

Her ambition was to stay in the U.K. for ten years, working as a typist, and then to emigrate to Canada. Unfortunately, although she worked steadily on the General Education course, she did not make sufficient progress to enable her to enter a business studies course the following year. The Careers Advisory Service arranged interviews for her when she decided that she would like to be a punch card operator although they did not have much hope of her obtaining such employment. She did not attend the interviews however, and other students reported that she had started work stacking shelves in a supermarket.

Case 93 - Test scores

Test 1		49		
Test 2		24		
Test 2 repeat		34		
Essay 1	300 words		27 structural errors	8 lexical errors
Essay 2	150 "		24 " "	3 " "
Picture Oral	50 "		2 errors	
Picture Written	100 "		8 "	
Manchester Reading Test		9		
Reading Test			20 errors	
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices		23		
Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale		18		
Listening Discrimination	1	143		
	2	120		

Essay 1 is reproduced in the section on T-unit measure. (Appendix VII)

Case 98 male subject Jamaican subsample 1973-74 sample

'The real reason for me coming here is to try and achieve as much as I can; and try and pass a few examination. I would specially like to get maths and English to help me with the proffession I am trying at. If and when I get them I would like to try for some more. Until I am qualified for the job or profession I want.'

A sophisticated mature student, case 98 seemed at ease and happily adjusted to life in the college and in London generally. He had been born in Kingston, Jamaica, where he had lived with his mother for three years until she came to London and he moved in with his maternal grandmother and cousins. His grandmother was a nurse and he attended a primary school until he was twelve years and passed his common entrance to a high school with a sound academic reputation. He came to London to join his mother when he was sixteen and one week after his arrival he enrolled at the college on a General Education course.

He was living in Stoke Newington, sharing a three-bedroomed house with his mother and stepfather and two young half sisters, both born in the U.K. His mother was a geriatric nurse and his father a tailor. His parents spoke a mixture of S.B.E. and S.J.E., his sisters spoke with a slight London accent. He himself spoke S.J.E. and his written English, which was mature and fluent in style, contained only a few structural deviations from S.B.E. His closest friends were a mixture of West Indians and British and he attended a Roman Catholic Church where the congregation was mainly British.

His ambition was to be an accountant and he hoped to stay in London for only two years, after which he would emigrate to Canada where an elder married sister was living. He did not wish to return to Jamaica as he felt it had become 'too violent.' He worked steadily during his first year at the college and entered a one-year G.C.E. 'O' level course in the General Studies Department the following year. An I.L.E.A. Careers adviser felt that as he had not obtained 'O' levels before the age of

seventeen years he would probably not be able to become a chartered accountant but that he might well become an accountant's clerk. This appeared to satisfy him and he is continuing to make progress in all his course subjects.

Case 98 - Test scores

Test 1		83		
Test 2		72		
Test 2 repeat		70		
Essay 1	200 words		4 structural errors	3 lexical errors
Essay 2	250 "		8 " "	2 " "
Picture Oral	100 "		0 errors	
Picture Written	150 "		1 error	
Manchester Reading Test		22		
Reading Test			2 errors	
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices		46		
Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale		30		
Listening Discrimination 1		152		
2		151		

Essay 1 - MYSELF

The last two years I was attending Kingston College. I took an examination in which I was successful. On my first day I was not very comfortable but I tried to fit myself in. After one month or so I was promoted to an higher grade. There I was supposed to take my 'O' levels. At that time I left and went to Canada where I spent a few months and came on to here.

Now I am in England I dont really like the place, but I will just have to stay. After a few days at home it got bouring. Knowing that the colledge was so near I told my mother she should try and get me enrolled. The next morning she carried me over I got in, and I was told that I could start the coming Monday. The real reason for me coming here is to try and achieve as much as I can; and try and pass a few examination. I would specially like to get maths and english to help me with the proffession I am trying at If, and when I get them I would like to try for some more. Until I am qualified for the job or profession I want.

Wastage 1 male subject dropped from Jamaican subsample 1972-73 sample

One of the subjects who was dropped from the sample when he was asked to leave the college, was a Jamaican born male who had been living in London for five years before he enrolled at the college on a General Education course. He was an articulate, ambitious student who was generally co-operative but rather quick-tempered. He would adopt a forceful, dominant role in class discussion and sometimes become irrational and difficult to quieten if his views were opposed. He spoke with a strong Jamaican accent, frequently using dialect and was often difficult to understand except by other Jamaicans. A speech impediment which made him stammer exacerbated the situation. His written English showed evidence of strong interference from Jamaican dialect with many structural and lexical deviations from S.B.E.

He lived in a five-bedroomed house in Tottenham with his parents and four younger brothers and sisters. His father was a painter and decorator. In Jamaica he and his siblings had lived in Kingston with his maternal grandmother, his mother having left for England when he was two years old and his father having followed two years later. There he had attended an infant school between the ages of three and five years and then a primary until he was eleven years. Joining his parents in London when he was eleven, he had attended two secondary schools until he was fifteen years. He had not been entered for any examinations.

At the college he mixed mainly with other West Indian students and stayed in the evenings to play table tennis and listen to records. He was a Rastafarian by religion and most of his contacts outside the college were Jamaican. While on the General Education course he tried hard to learn S.B.E. syntax as he recognised the necessity to develop S.B.E. as a code separate and different from the Jamaican dialect he knew. He wished to stay in England for ten to fifteen years and then to return to

Jamaica. His ambition was to obtain an office job or to be a tailor but he felt that he was unlikely to achieve this, not because of the standard of his English or his lack of qualifications, but because he felt that most British employers were prejudiced against 'black people' and would not give him a job. He had tried previously to find employment in a tailoring company but had not succeeded, partly, perhaps, due to his unwillingness to make any concessions to 'interview convention.' Refusing to accept the advisability of dressing smartly, he wore his knitted hat and jeans when interviewed and saw no need to call prospective employers 'sir' etc. In the second term he became involved in a fight and was dismissed from the college when witnesses accused him of drawing a knife. He had not been in trouble with the staff or other students previously but his quick temper had been noticed and he was considered a danger.

He obtained local factory employment and then emigrated to America.

Wastage 2. female subject dropped from Jamaican subsample 1972-73 sample

After one and a half terms on a General Education course this subject left the college ostensibly to find employment but possibly because she found it difficult to persevere with her work.

She had been living in Hackney since she was nine years old and shared a three-bedroomed flat with her mother, a hospital orderly, her stepfather, an engineer, and two half brothers and one half sister. The other people living in the house were also from the West Indies.

Before coming to London she had lived in urban Jamaica with her mother for seven years and with her maternal grandmother for the two years between her mother leaving Jamaica and her own journey to London. In Jamaica she had attended a private school between four and six years and a Junior school between six and nine years. In London she had attended a Junior school and from eleven years, an E.S.N. Secondary.

She had wanted to enter the Business Studies Department but had been refused as her written English was barely legible and contained many spelling errors and deviations from S.B.E. Enrolled on a General Education course she struggled to improve her written English but the interference from Jamaican dialect, which she still spoke even though she had been in London for seven years, made it difficult for her to learn S.B.E. She seemed aware that her written English was not improving and became disheartened. She wanted to return to her grandmother in Jamaica and was obviously not happy in London. Outside the college she seemed to have few interests and inside she mixed mainly with Jamaicans.

In the second term she started missing college one or two days per week and finally left. She said that she would 'find' a job, but it seemed more likely that she had given up the struggle to improve her written English.

A P P E N D I X I I

EXAMPLES OF NON-STANDARD ENGLISH PATTERNS TAKEN FROM THE TEST SCRIPTS OF THE JAMAICAN SUBJECTS

The following is a selection of the most common forms of deviation from Standard British English written by the Jamaican subjects during the present investigation. The examples are arranged in categories which approximate those used in the construction of Tests 1 and 2, although there is considerable overlapping, particularly where they contain several non-standard structures. The recurrent patterns indicate consistent interference from Jamaican dialect.

TENSES: present simple, progressive (including for the future)

From Test 2 Scripts:

she taller than him (zero copula)

he tired because he have been working all day (zero copula/incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

they goes on holiday every year (incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

every saturday I goes to the cinema (incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

this bag belong/belong's to me (incorrect verb inflexion for concord/misuse of apostrophe)

he have to go there next week (incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

there are only one knife (incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

her mother make she cook the dinner (incorrect verb and pronoun inflexions)

the film do not show yet (incorrect verb inflexion/tense)

he go every day by my sister (incorrect verb inflexion/preposition)

before to wash he ate his breakfast (use of infinitive in place of present participle)

From Essay 1 scripts:

I would like to be an audio typist because those type of people earns good money (incorrect pronoun and verb inflexions)

I tries to look as repectable as possible in public (incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

my sisters goes out so does my brothers (incorrect verb inflexions for concord)

I am 17 and is from the country of Jamaica (incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

my interest in life are church (incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

I left school and now goes to college (incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

my mum have four kids (incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

she have been going round trying to get me into school (incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

I do not see anything over here that interest me (incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

my brothers and sisters has much more room to play incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

From Essay 2 scripts:

some student comes to college when they please (incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

I think they teaches very well (incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

it look like a primary school (incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

no one care what time they reaches college (incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

TENSES: past simple, progressive

From Test 2 scripts:

the doors was mended (incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

his father were out (incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

they was working all evening (incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

he work hard and he pass his exam (use of single uninflected verb form instead of simple past)

I see her getting on a bus yesterday (use of single uninflected verb form instead of simple past)

I watch T.V. when my friend arrived (use of single uninflected verb form instead of simple past)

the dinner we eat yesterday (use of single uninflected verb form instead of simple past)

she stay by her friends the week before (use of single uninflected verb form instead of simple past/incorrect preposition)

while they walk they saw a friend (use of single uninflected verb form instead of past progressive)

the work finish by her mother (use of single uninflected verb form in place of passive form)

she were seen by her friends (incorrect verb inflexion for concord in passive form)

From Essay 1 scripts:

I attend school for three years (use of single uninflected verb form in place of simple past)

my parents leave me with my grandmother (use of single uninflected verb form in place of simple past)

the school that I had been attending have its own country house (use of single uninflected verb form in place of simple past)

the kids that was in my class act stupid, those that haven't brought up in the right manner (incorrect verb inflexion for concord/use of single uninflected verb form in place of simple past/use of incorrect tense/mood)

I were born in Jamaica, when I were 7 year I met in an accident with a car (incorrect verb inflexion for concord/ inappropriate lexis)

TENSES: present and past perfect

From Test 2 scripts:

the film have not shown yet (incorrect verb inflexion for concord/incorrect passive form)

the doors as been mended (incorrect verb inflexion for concord/orthographical error)

he haven't given us any money (incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

after he had eating)
after he eaten) he went out (various incorrect
after he have eaten) inflexion/participle)
after he finish eat)

she as waited (orthographical error)

she been waiting (omission of auxiliary)

he have been on holiday (incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

he had work hard and he pass his exam (use of single uninflected verb form in place of past participle and simple present)

her mother have cook the dinner (incorrect verb inflexion for concord/use of single uninflected verb form instead of past participle)

He went out after he eaten (omission of auxiliary)

From Essay 1 scripts:

I has now come (incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

only few things has happened to me (incorrect verb inflexion for concord/omission of noun determiner)

my life have not been a very excited one (incorrect verb inflexion for conford/incorrect adjectival)

From Essay 2 scripts:

it is a big school and have got about 72 teacher (incorrect verb inflexion for concord)

I have spoke to many people (use of single uninflected verb form instead of past participle)

TENSES: Conditional

From Test 2 scripts:

what will happen) if he had been late (various
what would happened) incorrect forms of rejected
what would have happen) past conditional form)

what would you do if I visit you (incorrect tense structure)

TENSES: Reported Speech

From Test 2 scripts:- "Can I go?" She asked whether she can go (incorrect tense)

Infinitive

From Test 2 scripts:
- he is going to visited my aunt tommorrow (incorrect use of past participle to form infinitive)
- his father happen to went out (use of single uninflected verb form instead of simple past/incorrect use of past participle to form infinitive)

From Essay 1 scripts:-
- I came to joined my parents (incorrect use of past participle to form infinitive)
- I had to broke up with my school friend (incorrect use of past participle to form infinitive)
- I have chosen to attended college (incorrect use of past participle to form infinitive)
- you had to left them alone (incorrect use of past participle to form infinitive)
- I had to prepared to take my exams (incorrect use of past participle to form infinitive)

From Essay 2 scripts:
- they are allowed to smoked (incorrect use of past participle to form infinitive)

Question form

(i) by auxiliary or modal verb form placed initially

From Test 2 scripts:
- Did they ever lived in London before? (incorrect use of past participle)
- Did they studied before they came? (incorrect use of past participle)
- Does that finished by 8 o'clock? (incorrect use of past participle)
- Have you pass your exam last year? (incorrect use of single uninflected verb form in place of past participle)

(ii) by question words

- How long have you live here? (incorrect use of single uninflected verb form in place of past participle)
- How long does I take from here? (incorrect verb inflexion for concord)
- Where you go now? (incorrect use of non inverted single uninflected verb form in place of inverted present progressive)
- What you do with yourself yesterday? (incorrect use of non inverted single uninflected verb form in place of inverted simple past)

(iii) Question tags

He won't go would he?

You have seen her did you?

You beleive do you?

Negative form

From Test 2 scripts:

you did not finished your work yet (incorrect auxiliary)

From Essay 1 scripts:

people do not liked to be bossed about (incorrect use of past participle)

I didn't really wanted to leave (incorrect use of past participle)

I did not seemed to learn a lot (incorrect use of past participle)

From Essay 2 scripts:

I didn't expected college to be like this (incorrect use of past participle)

Miscellaneous

From Test 2 scripts:

her mother maked her cook the dinner (incorrect catenative)

how much spoons of sugar? (noun determiner signals incorrect form class)

there are only few knives (omission of noun determiner)

he was very late that... (incorrect use of so...that pattern)

the film was not very interesting has I had hoped (incorrect use of as...as pattern/orthographical error)

From Essay 1 scripts:

I find London on a whole quite gay and horrible (incorrect noun determiner)

it was a shocking news (incorrect noun determiner)

my parent name is (incorrect possessive form)

I came to join my parents which came ten years before (incorrect relative)

I hope to become a social work (incorrect lexis)

well from I know myself I was a very nice little kid

I liked it very much in Jamaica than over here

it was my first time to attend English school

my last year in school was that I had to take my exam

I like things which you have to use my hands

my uncle and his wife they are also from Jamaica (unnecessary inclusion of pronoun after subject)

the parents them have money (unnecessary inclusion of objective inflexion of personal pronoun after subject)

From Essay 2 scripts:

the name of my school I went to (incorrect use of possessive determiner)

we learned more from the teachers them at school (unnecessary inclusion of objective inflexion of personal pronoun)

for the two day I have attend to this college I think of it rather dull (omission of plural inflexion/use of single uninflected verb form in place of past participle)

Orthographical

From Essays 1 and 2 scripts:

use of	in place of
fine	find
has	as
is	his
husban	husband
use	used
thing	think

Lexis

a next one	another one
evening	afternoon

APPENDIX III

TABLE A3.1: ENGLISH EXAMINATION PERFORMANCE OF FULL-TIME DAY STUDENTS AT HACKNEY AND STOKE NEWINGTON COLLEGE FOR FURTHER EDUCATION

'O' level G.C.E. passes - London and A.E.B. Boards

	No. passed	No. sat
January 1973	8	46
Summer 1973	34	193
January 1974	5	28
Summer 1974	58	142

APPENDIX IV

TABLE A4.1: OCCUPATIONS OF SUBJECTS IN SAMPLE THE YEAR AFTER THEY TOOK PART IN THE PRESENT INVESTIGATION

	Jamaican	Greek/Turkish	U.K.
Remained at Hackney and Stoke Newington on full-time general education course	-	1	-
Remained at H. & S. N. on full-time 'O' level or Business Studies course	38	16	2
Transferred to different college for 'O' level course	3	6	-
Transferred for 'A' level course	3	2	3
Transferred for O.N.D. course	1	1	-
Transferred for drama course	-	-	1
Transferred for art/design course	-	4	1
Nursing	2	-	4
Journalism	-	-	1
Librarian	1	-	-
Hairdressing	-	1	-
Office typist	13	2	2
Bank typist	2	-	-
Office clerk	3	-	-
Apprenticeship	2	2	-
Shop assistant	4	2	2
Security guard	-	1	-
Catering	1	-	-
Factory	3	-	2
Unemployed	3	-	2
Pregnant	3	-	-
Prison	1	-	-
Returned to country of origin	2	4	-
Unknown	29	23	35
N	114	65	55

APPENDIX V

TABLE A5.1: CORRELATION MATRIX - JAMAICAN SUBSAMPLE

	1	2	3	4	5
1 Born in U.K.	1.0000				
2 Years of U.K. education	0.4567	1.0000			
3 Intention to settle in U.K.	0.0814	-0.1253	1.0000		
4 Attendance	-0.2112	0.2211	0.0525	1.0000	
5 English Examination Performance	0.1646	-0.5079	0.1998	0.0658	1.0000
6 Test 1	-0.1934	0.4337	-0.0061	0.0458	-0.4310
7 Test 2	-0.0979	0.3243	0.1123	0.0375	-0.2821
8 Manchester Reading Test	-0.1850	0.2872	0.2269	0.1612	-0.2371
9 Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices	-0.2047	0.2910	0.0341	0.0930	-0.3247
10 Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale	-0.1139	0.2827	0.0244	0.0168	-0.4324
11 Listening Discrimination 1	-0.1097	0.3625	0.0419	0.0072	-0.2344
12 Listening Discrimination 2	-0.1677	0.4411	-0.0258	0.1150	-0.3388
13 Test 2 repeat	-0.0324	0.2812	0.0285	-0.0871	-0.3673
14 Test 2 difference scores	0.1138	-0.1172	-0.1603	-0.1920	-0.0813
15 Essay % structural error difference scores	-0.0338	-0.1359	-0.0574	-0.0801	0.1347
16 Essay % lexical error difference scores	-0.0200	-0.0796	-0.1209	0.1355	0.0104

TABLE A5.1 (continued)

	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
6	1.0000							
7	0.6628	1.0000						
8	0.6163	0.6370	1.0000					
9	0.4407	0.4033	0.4332	1.0000				
10	0.5403	0.5913	0.6530	0.4183	1.0000			
11	0.6727	0.5083	0.4639	0.2782	0.3623	1.0000		
12	0.6988	0.5400	0.4936	0.3182	0.3836	0.8513	1.0000	
13	0.6953	0.8029	0.5892	0.4566	0.5682	0.5243	0.5264	1.0000
14	-0.0593	-0.4568	-0.1750	0.0139	-0.1306	-0.0589	-0.1083	0.1635
15	-0.1247	-0.1147	-0.1042	-0.2413	-0.1886	-0.2739	-0.2234	-0.1779
16	-0.1048	-0.1650	-0.0036	-0.0249	-0.0424	-0.0078	-0.0847	-0.1183

TABLE A5.1 (continued)

	14	15	16
14	1.0000		
15	-0.0744	1.0000	
16	0.0965	-0.1200	1.0000

TABLE A5.2: CORRELATION MATRIX - GREEK/TURKISH SUBSAMPLE

		1	2	3	4	5
Born in U.K.	1	1.0000				
Years of U.K. education	2	0.5556	1.0000			
Intention to settle in U.K.	3	0.4466	-0.5887	1.0000		
Attendance	4	0.1099	0.0291	0.0893	1.0000	
English Examination Performance	5	0.4727	-0.4819	0.5275	0.1587	1.0000
Test 1	6	-0.2710	0.4358	-0.4131	0.1041	-0.4923
Test 2	7	0.0934	0.1918	-0.1929	0.1838	-0.2045
Manchester Reading Test	8	-0.1975	0.4829	-0.3285	-0.0066	-0.5389
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices	9	-0.1523	0.0213	-0.1600	0.0937	-0.2768
Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale	10	-0.0238	0.3717	-0.2254	0.1302	-0.3311
Listening Discrimination 1	11	-0.3249	0.5176	-0.4093	0.1413	-0.4572
Listening Discrimination 2	12	-0.2276	0.3833	-0.3128	0.2100	-0.4153
Test 2 repeat	13	0.0841	0.0398	-0.0760	0.1570	-0.1428
Test 2 difference scores	14	-0.0377	-0.2897	0.2336	-0.0876	0.1484
Essay % structural error difference scores	15	-0.1004	0.0276	0.0115	0.0935	0.0338
Essay % lexical error difference scores	16	0.1039	0.1185	0.0565	0.3050	0.0730

TABLE A5.2 (continued)

	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
6	1.0000							
7	0.6278	1.0000						
8	0.6479	0.5453	1.0000					
9	0.3459	0.3605	0.3551	1.0000				
10	0.5392	0.4845	0.6092	0.2051	1.0000			
11	0.6367	0.3994	0.6323	0.1988	0.5678	1.0000		
12	0.6248	0.5197	0.6339	0.3370	0.6172	0.8075	1.000	
13	0.6091	0.8401	0.4873	0.3373	0.4215	0.3337	0.4311	1.0000
14	-0.1831	-0.4995	-0.2258	-0.1250	-0.2190	-0.2024	-0.2684	0.0503
15	0.0849	-0.1382	-0.0334	0.0948	-0.2231	-0.0992	-0.0997	-0.0768
16	0.2687	0.3605	0.2294	0.0679	0.2201	0.1347	0.3222	0.3686

TABLE A5.2 (continued)

	14	15	16
14	1.0000		
15	0.1318	1.0000	
16	-0.0752	0.1237	1.000

TABLE A5.3: CORRELATION MATRIX - U.K. SUBSAMPLE

		1	2	3	4	5
Attendance	1	1.0000				
English Examination Performance	2	0.0774	1.000			
Test 1	3	-0.1260	-0.3447	1.0000		
Test 2	4	-0.0452	-0.3755	0.6980	1.0000	
Manchester Reading Test	5	-0.0235	-0.4804	0.6531	0.6491	1.0000
Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices	6	-0.0034	-0.2546	0.5190	0.5801	0.5333
Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale	7	0.0790	-0.5147	0.6342	0.7134	0.7513
Listening Discrimination 1	8	-0.0083	0.0197	0.4663	0.3672	0.3093
Listening Discrimination 2	9	0.0203	-0.1693	0.5963	0.4735	0.5191
Test 2 repeat	10	0.0114	-0.3334	0.7095	0.8171	0.6258
Test 2 difference scores	11	0.0952	0.1478	0.1397	-0.4997	-0.1809
Essay % structural error difference scores	12	-0.2522	-0.0674	0.2282	-0.0795	-0.0612
Essay % lexical error difference scores	13	-0.0757	-0.0397	0.2272	0.2749	0.2018

TABLE A5.3 (continued)

	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
6	1.0000							
7	0.5241	1.0000						
8	0.2152	0.3157	1.0000					
9	0.3473	0.5394	0.7459	1.0000				
10	0.6048	0.6894	0.3785	0.4661	1.0000			
11	-0.0933	-0.1964	-0.0657	-0.1176	0.0911	1.0000		
12	-0.0374	-0.2007	-0.1151	-0.2152	-0.1297	-0.0576	1.0000	
13	-0.1104	0.1073	-0.0741	0.0195	0.1222	-0.2913	0.0840	1.0000

A P P E N D I X V I

TABLE A6.1: TESTS 1 AND 2: ITEMS ACCORDING TO STRUCTURE TESTED

Verbals: Tenses - present simple, progressive (including for future)

items:- 1,6,7,13,14,22,31,36,38,46,50,51,60,65,82,84,92.

past simple, progressive

items:- 2,3,26,43,57,58,74,75,77,81.

present and past perfect

items:- 27,28,29,44,45,59,78,80,81,90,91,96,98,99.

future simple, going to, future in the past

items:- 25,42,56,66,73,86,100.

conditional

items:- 5,11,20,47,83.

reported speech

items:- 32,61,88.

present and past perfect continuous

items:- 9,18,41.

Catenatives - make do, want to do, let do

items:- 10,19,55.

Auxiliaries - must, ought

items:- 24,40.

Determiners - many much

items:- 85,93.

some, a, any, an

items:- 15,37,97.

few, a few

items:- 52,67.

Prepositions - items:- 4,21,33,48,62.

Infinites/Participle phrases

items:- 16,28,53,68.

Adjectivals - Comparative/superlative

items:- 17,54,89,94.

Pronouns - reflexives - items:- 39,72,95.

personal - items:- 35,69,79.

Question tags - items:- 12,34,49,63.

Lexis - items:- 64

So that, so...as, as...as

items:- 23,71,87.

Negative form - Item:- 70.

Question form - item:- 76.

APPENDIX VII

COPIES OF ESSAYS USED FOR T-UNIT ANALYSIS

Essay Test - Myself Case 11 Jamaican subsample (Mean T-unit length -10)

My name is ---. I was born in Jamaica / I left since I was five And came to England. / But I alway lived in stoke-newington area. / I used to go to Nothwold primary school. Then to mouth-pleasant secondary / At nothwold I had a lot friends. /

At mount-pleasant I had a quit lot friends also because some who use to go to my primary school comes to mount-pleasant too. / our class use to be the worse out of the whole school / we made three of our teachers cry and left. /

Their our seven in our family. three girls and two boys plus my mum and dad / one goes to work. me and my sister go to college and the other two goes to school.

My father is a guard on the trains. And my mother use to be a nurse. But now she's a housewife. The flats where we live is quiet nice we have five fights. And the people who they are quiet friendly except for one who also moon. Because if their taking to someone outside. just to see whats going on me and her querrl every night and day.

I go to College now. I hope to do nurseing the collge it self is rather old. And everybody make's frend with each other my class is rather small becuse they are only fifteen girls in my class their's about six left already.

Essay Test - Myself Case 20 Jamaican subsample (Mean T-unit length -10)

I where born in Jamaica / and I was grow up in the District call Shewsbury, where I was living with my peorents / which they have seven children of us which three boys and five girls / and my grandmother where leveng with us / which in all ten puples were living in the home / and we live very happely / I could remember once when I was sick / and my sister wont me to get better that I could go out to school with her, / she around me and cry saying that she wont me to get better / it was a joke to see her./

My shool was near to that district where I was living. And the school was call Fruitful Vale Primary School, and they do a lot of subject there such as sicence, gohergppry english. and Math.

And I enjoy playing games with my frends such as marble baise ball jox, needle and tread and doind many other game oh I whoden mine being home when I remember some of those lovely thing I use to do.

Essay Test - Myself Case 17 Jamaican subsample (Mean T-unit length -10)

My name is ---- / I am 17 years of age. / I have very few hobbies, / these hobbies are dancing, listening to music, not classical music modern music such as pop, soul or Reggae. /

I go to ay youth club twice a week both on a tuesday and on a friday, / on tuesdays I do dancing / and on Fridays I do drama. / Once a year I act in competitions on behalf of my borough, / last year my group was awarded 3rd prize which was a certificate./

Sometimes however I tend to alow my daydreams to venture too far, / I find myself wishing that I was a pop singer. I even go as far as to believe that it is possible.

However I still hope that in the long run I will become a singer and actress. certainly not as a career, as my ambition is based on a more

inernest base. I like as you might have already gathered I love to entertain and to make people happy, by doing this I myself is happy.

But before I close this autobiography I must say that my greatest ambition is to become an efficient and sucessful Audio-typist working in government Departments.

Essay Test - Myself Case 19 Jamaican subsample (Mean T-unit length -9.09)

I am sixteen years old / I am about 5'6" tall. / I have black hair brown eyes and a medium brown complexion. /

I have many friends but I do not have a best friend. / I like to watch and play football / I also like table tennis and records. / I dislike things which might endanger my health or appearence. /

My family are mostly of the nursing line, / I am referring to my mother who is a 'sister' my father who is a male nurse, / many of my aunts and cousins are in the nursing proffesion. / I have not decided what I want to be when I leave college. /

Essay Test - Myself Case 4 Jamaican subsample (Mean T-unit length - 12.33)

I began to go to Drayton Park primary school in 1962. / The years between 62 and 67 were easy going and quite enjoyable ones. /

In 1967 I went to Highbury grove comprehensive in Highbury. / The first years there seemed to go by very slowly, / yet they were quite good. / From the third year onwards life became a lot more difficult because we had to work harder etc. / It seemed more boring that year than I had ever experienced before at school. / After that year the 4th went by very quickly and so did the 5th. / Apart from the exams at the end of the term we seemed to have a lot of time and freedom, without breaking any regulations./

I left Highbury Grove in 1972 and came here. It was a new set up completely. It is better for some reasons and worse for others, I have

not changed much in the time that I have spent here but I get on alright, Sometimes I find particular lessons boring or sometimes just the teacher. I also get on alright with the other students and most of the staff.

Essay Test - Myself Case 12 Jamaican subsample (Mean T-unit length - 7.14)

My life store I was born in jamaica / and gone their and I liveing manchester / and go to school in manchester / and My Mother and father came to England live me with my grand prent / and then My pente send for me / and came year one somer / and I was 11 year old / and I start school after the somer oldday finish / and the school that I went to was clissold Park / and I injony every mour ment there / every one was very god to me ther / and I strit in the fers year / and I finich in the fif year / and I past my C.S.E./ and I came to this cellege to liryed to past som cheve and I find that I get in with every one year as well and I find out that I make frind very suk In side of a lot of paceis iwent to and every one like me.

Essay Test - Myself Case 93 Jamaican subsample (Mean T-unit length - 9.09)

My name is ---- / I was born in Kingston Jamaica in the West indies Islands / I am 16 years old, / I was living in the West Indies about 15 years where I futter my Education. / I am 5 ft 7 inches tall / I attended three primary schools in Jamaica / First of all I attended the Infant / then second I attended the Junior where I spent three years studied / then third I over to the biggest one / that is the senior school / I spent all my time at the senior school / the people them in my country is very friendly / I like Jamaica because of the beautiful sunshine and lovely beaches / after I left school in the West Indies I decides to come to England to met my mom and Dad I leave Jamaica on the 7th of Apirl and I reach England on the 8th Apirl 1973 that was a Sunday day morning when

I reach to England it was very cold, I start to cry and I say that I want to go home to my country I take me so long before I get a custom to the place and I still do not a custom to it. I miss all my friends in Jamaica I am in this country about 6 months now then I come to college on the 10th of September 1973 to futter my Education, I has three sisters and one brother, my mother and father have five children my mother is a colour woman and also my father I am the last child for my mom and Dad when I grow up more I will like to be a types to work in a office. My complexion is dark I has short hair. I am very intellegent in my lesson and show good work, I am not fat and not to thin I am wearing a blue dress with red around it and a brown coat and a Red shoes and a black bag.

Essay Test - Myself Case 96 Jamaican subsample (mean T-unit length - 11.11)

being myself and think of my self I can see how it was in the pass for me. / it was hard for me to get on in some place like school. / But I got along, / well after a whille got on / well I dicide to leave school at age of sixteen / it was four mounth back that I dicide to leave school / after I have left school I decide to look for a job / but my parents told me I am better off at College for two year / well I say yes to myself and end up in Stoke Newton College. /

Now I am at College it see all right to me but the lesson I had was not my satisfaction so I decide change my lesson and when on G.C.E. two now am on thil I feel O.K. but nest year I hope I will be able to take some Exgam.

Essay Test - Myself Case 27 Jamaican subsample (Mean T-unit length - 12.33)

My life started on the 6th February 1955 / it was 4 o.clock on a Sunday morning that I made my entrance into this world that I am now living in, the best I can. / I know that i was christened ----- / althougth I was not aware of the event taking place. /

I was the second child of my mother, my brother begin 5 years older than me. / I spent the first 3 years of my life, in Jamaica, living with my Grandparents. / My mother had left earlier for England. / I arrived in England one very cold day with my aunt./

All I was aware of, was the coldness at the airport, and having to wait for a car to take us home.

When we arrived at our journey end I saw wm bady sister for the first time and a mirror. I remember, that the mirror held a great facination for me.

My school years was spent as any other persons. I went to a primary school.

I remember I had one problem in primary school that I just could not get over and that was to do really writing. Writing and drawing the words together not matter how I tryed I just could not seem to get it right. Yet when I entered Junior school I found that it was not important. So I was worrying all for nothing.

Joining secondary school I was sure that I was going to Mount Pleasant school for Girls because I had already made up my mind that I was sick of boys. Yet to my surprise I found that I was put down for Clapton Park school for Girls. It seems that my headmaster had decided that it would be better for me to spilt up from my friends. We though won in the end, because my friends ended up going to the same school has me because Mount Pleasant was full.

Essay Test - Myself Case 47 Jamaican subsample (Mean T-unit length - 14.28)

After being born in the Kingstown Jubilee Hospital, I went home to Spanish Town after 5 days/my father left the Island 4 days later. / During the next nine months I lived with my mother and almost died of Hooping Cough but survived. / When I was nine months old I went to live with my fathers parents while my mother came to the country to be married. /

At four years old I went to school / it was a prep school, run by a family friend. / After absolutely dying to go to school I absolutely lothed that first half day but loved every minute of it after that. / I spent three years at Blake's where I was even head boy for it was basically an infant school.

Next I went to Penicote another prep school. There I spent a year. Being that the method of teaching was completely different and the text books used nothing in comparison I started the year some what to the bottom of my age groupe but by the second term I was well on top of the class. I only spent a year there and went on the followring year to Balies.

This was the biggest school I had gone to yet. I was again put back a class. Within a fortnight I was due to be out but kept back by a boy called Leslie Lewis we were both supposed to go up but he was absent for some weeks and I eventually made the move without him. I was then 8 years old. After three months in class 3 I went up to class 4 the eleven plus class before I was even nine there I spent 2 years. The first being helped by my cousins Nod and Tony Shaw. And the second, helping the new commers, Three days before my eleventh birthday I took my eleven plus In March that year 1966 my grand father died and in April I left and came to this country.

Essay Test - Myself Case 134 U.K. subsample (Mean T-unit length - 10)

To start with, I was born seventeen years ago in Hackney. / I have got four brothers all younger than myself. / They are aged 15, 12, 10 and 7. / My mum and dad are both teachers. / My dad teaches P.E. at a boys' secondary school/ and my mum is an infants teacher. / I am afraid that I do not take after my parents as I am not particularly clever. /

For most of my life I lived in Stoke Newington / but two years ago we moved to Shoreditch to a new housing estate. / I did not like leaving my friends behind in Stoke Newington / but I often go and see them or go out with them or they come down to see me and we go out somewhere in Shoreditch.

I went to Sir Thomas Abney junior school and when I was eleven I went to Our Lady's Convent I am afraid that I really hated my secondary school because they were too strict. I am still trying to live down the fact that I went to a convent school because most people think that you only go there to become a nun. One good thing came of going to that school though, because I met my boyfriend Garry at a school dance we had there and I have been going out with him ever since.

I have got a lot of friends and even though we have all left school we still keep in contact with each other and one night every week we all go out together. Even though I am the only one still studying that have kept in touch. Because I am the only girl my dad spoils me, and always sticks up for me when my mum starts nagging at me. My life so far has been uneventful. Last year though I was going out with a boy who had a car and one night he crashed it so I spent six weeks in hospital with a broken nose and broken arm and many cuts and bruises. Needless to say my dad made sure I never went in his car again. Anyway while I was in hospital all that time, he found himself another girlfriend. I do not like 'teenybopper' pop music but I like 'underground' music. I have been

to a lot of pop concerts and they are not all drugs and free love as many of the older generation seem to think. My mum doesn't like me going but she says at 17 I should know how to act sensibly.

Essay Test - Myself Case 141 U.K. subsample (Mean T-unit length - 6.66)

Myself I am just like any one else. / Maybe I have some defence / I like swimming / I like all sport / I do not think I am great just alright / I only go out at the weekend / In the week day I staed in. / I have no hobbies / I just like looking at the TV. / Some night I go out / if I do I cannot get up in the morning / so it better if I just staed in. / The only sport I do not like is football / and that the only thing we look at / and it drive me mad. / One day I would like to be a great swimming or some think to do with sport.

Essay Test - Myself Case 115 U.K. subsample (Mean T-unit length - 7.68)

I was born in the London hospital on the 9th of October, / we lived in the city of 5 years / then we moved to frost gate / I was the only child for 8 years / On Christmas day my little sister was born / so I had a lovely Christmas gifte. /

When I was 10 we moved in to London, Hackney were we liveded for 5 years. / I have a few hobbys / one is horse riding / one day be a show jumper, / I like going danceing and being in a room all on my know listen to records. /

My ambition is to move out in the country have a hous of my know and go to other countrys one the USA and go over all their country side on the houses a sleep under starts. /

Essay Test - Myself Case 154 U.K. subsample (Mean T-unit length - 14.28)

I had been living away from home from the age of 4 till 17./ I had some good time at ---- / but it was very hard for me when I left --- because I was a compleat strange to my family / and it was very difficut for me and the family when I came home because I could not walk because I had just had an opreation to get my feet flat on the ground / I was getting so farstrated because I could not walk / it took me about 1½ year to get back on my feet. /

After that I came to college / and I have got on very well with everybody at college, at the end of this year I hope to go to Queen Elizabeth training college to do tiping that will be for about 9 mounths and from they I hope I will get a job but I will have to wait and see if I can get into Queen Elizabth but if I do not get into I hope to get into another one that will help me with tiping.

Essay Test - Myself Case 155 U.K. subsample (Mean T-unit length - 11.11)

Term began last in September, / I had made up my mind to do an engerneering course. / The time table for the year was completely based round engineering and other pratical subjects, / it included no academic subjects of any kind. / After a few weeks I had to report to the head of the sixth form for having too many free periods / so I had to revise my time table. / I managed to fit in two other subjects, / these ere British Constitution and Law. / After studying these subjects for a few weeks I began to take a serious intrest in both of them, and not just to fill in gaps as I was previously doing. / I started to do extra period in the subject and droped out engineering. By the time Christmas term had come round I had droped all practical subject. I was entered in both subjects, also English to take 'O' levels in them. Once again I had rather a lot of

free period but this time nothing was said. Every spare chance I had I spent in the Library. Towards May and June I....

Essay Test - Myself Case 119 U.K. subsample (Mean T-unit length - 7.68)

I have two sisters and three brothers. / We all live with our parents in a house at Highbury. / One sister is still at school / and I go to college / but the rest work./ My other sister works for Barclays Bank, / two brothers are electricians / and one is a civil servant, the same as my Dad. / My Mum works four mornings a week. / She has her own playgroup, where children from the age of 2-4 go. / I would like to do nursing when I leave college. / I've wanted to do this since the age of six. / I went to St Johns primary school. / then I went to Barnsbury Secondary School for girls. There I stayed until I was sixteen, then I came to Hackney and Stoke Newington College.

I have been a member of the Red Cross since I was eleven. We do all sorts of work, but mostly we do First Aid Duties. We go to various places, eg The Royal Festival Hall. The Palladium Theatre, Olympia and other exhibitions. Also we do escort duties. This is when we collect some one from hospital and take them to there destination. We have to take exams in Nursing and First Aid to be able to do these duties.

I like casual clothes. and clothes that are comfortable to wear. A lot of these fashion clothes are so uncomfortable and badly made, that I make some of my skirts, and dresses. I am now trying to make a blouse.

I like all English food and enjoy cooking it too. Also I love curry and rice, especially when I make it.

It is my ambition to be a success at my job.

Essay Test - Myself Case 120 U.K. subsample (Mean T-unit length - 12.33)

I am English and young./ Whether this is an asset or not I fail to understand but I do realize that I am luckier than a lot of people./

I enjoy all aspects of drama and writing and would love to base my career around these subjects. / I surely will have a career because I do not feel inclined to spend my life in the prison of my home. / Adversely I do not agree with the Women's Liberation Movement; / I beleive women do have good opportunities at present / and many women are satisfied with simply caring for a family / and, since they derive great satisfaction from this occupation, there is no ressen why they should not establish their personal position in society and in the nuclear family with the co-operation and assistance of their husband./

I am an only child and have therefore had a lot more attention than children from large families may possibly receive. I find that I get on much more easily alone than people from large families do but I would like to have two or three children if I ever marry.

I want to be able to bring up my own children to have as many opportunities as possible; unless I were in a financial position to be able to do this I doubt whether I would have any; I think it is mostly women who wish to have children before they are financially and emotionally ready for them.

I love Shakespears; I simply cannot beleive that any ordinary human being could possibly have created such marvellous works as he did. Of course, he was not ordinary.

Essay Test - Myself Case 132 U.K. subsample (Mean T-unit length - 11.11)

On December 10 1954 my life started in a house in London. / I am the second youngest in a family of four. / I have lived all my life in London, most of it in the same house. / My parents came here from Ireland and are both strict Roman Catholics. / I started education in a R.C. school at the age of five / and most of the teachers I had were nuns from the nearby convent. / There was a special emphasis on religion / and every school day started and ended with prayers. / we were taught to beleive that everything in the bible was true and had no way of reasoning otherwise. / I went to mass twice a week, once on Sunday and once during the week at school. The building was a very large old house which was taken over by nuns during the war when the occupants fled the country after the London blitz started. The school was only partly helped by the L.C.C. but it was mainly financed by the church. While I was there a new school was built and there is a playground in place of the old site. When I left this school I wanted to go to one of the R.C. grammar schools but was told I was out of the area so I ended up going to Highbury County Grammar School which combined with two other schools to become a large comprehensive school for boys the following year. I was in the A streams all through school. I threw my chances away in the fourth year when I started to play around in the classrooms with the people who were leaving. By the end of the year I found myself a long way behind and so I was thrown out of some 'O' level classes. I could never resist the temptation to join in the fun instead of doing my work. After leaving school I came here and now I am going to be serios and work hard.

Essay Test - Myself | Case 117 | U.K. subsample (Mean T-unit length - 14.28)

My name is ----, the first child of ---- and ---- -----. / I was born in Bethnal Green Hospital on the fourth of April, 1956, late at night. / Strange though it may seem I still do not know how I became to be born in Bethnal Green, / when after I came out of hospital with my mother, I was taken to live in a flat in Elephant and Castle. /

I was known to be a very spoilt baby by my paternal grand mother who always wanted a daughter / but, however, she was unable to have one. / So when I came along she was thrilled / and she was quite content with a granddaughter instead of a daughter.

I lived in a very old block of flats in Falmouth Road, off New Kent Road. On the other side of the road was a rather noisy public house and a Presbyterian Church or Chapel. On my side of the street further down was a park where I often played Cowboys and Indians, being the only girl the same age as the group of boys in my street I often played the cowgirl heroine. I always seem the remember all the accidents I had when I lived here. The time I got stuck in the lift of another block of flats, when I cut myself on the derelict site; the time I ran so fast over some foot high divisions of the front courtyards outside the flats I cut my forehead open. One accident I remember so vividly was when my brother and I got knocked down by a scooter, another one was when I cut my knee badly with glass.

My first school was St. Joseph Lancaster Primary Girls and Infants. I never actually attended the Primary department as I moved to Bethnal Green when I was six years and two months, I never went to a nursary class at all. My first day at this school wasn't a tearful one. I sat on a table with my mother waiting to be told which class I was about to be put into.

The only teacher I remember was a Mrs. Street, who until recently was headmistress at London Fields Infants School. She was always helping me with work I found hard to do.

Essay Test - Myself Case 122 U.K. subsample (Mean T-unit length - 10)

I was born in Feb 1955 / my earliest memery is about thirteen years ago when we lived in Holland / (my father was statiod there) / I was to shy to go to stay at a party / so I brought the party up to my home. / The next part of my childhood was at the old RAF station at Weeton near Preston running and playing on top of unused air-raid shelter / that was about the time my father died. / We used to play in the woods along side the base. / Then in 1961 my father died / and we moved to Warton a village about two miles from the RAF base./ I attended the locle village school. A christmas of the same year we moved again to Manchester. The day we moved, It snowed heavily That mount I started school in Manchester I don't rember at all. I do remember that when I started secondry school I was much of a loner I got on well we my class mates and they got on with me. When I reached the third year the school changed to a comprehensive school in which I stayed and took my CSE and GCE examinations then in Feb of this year I moved down to London and I now live with my Grandparents. I attend gallage through the week and work as a petrol pump attendant at week ends I am still a bit of a loner, but not so much as when I was young.

Essay Test - Myself Case 211 Greek/Turkish subsample (Mean T-unit length - 11.11)

My childhood when I was born in Cyprus and my father and Mother and my cousen came to see me. / When I was about 9 year old my parents came to England because in Cyprus war break up / that why my parents left the country. / And came to his country my father and mother looked afther us very well / afther two weeks I stares at school / and my father stares at work / very

thing was going all right / about when I left school my father want to send me to college / I said all right I go to college if you want me to. / And I whet to College to be some one.

Essay Test - Myself Case 176 Greek/Turkish subsample (Mean T-unit length - 8.33)

My name is --- ----- / but that my nicknam / my real name is Panayiotis Lambrou. /

I have lived in London since I came here in 1962 / I was five year's old then / and I am nearly seventin year's old. / I was born in Nicosia which is the capital of Cyprus wich is where I came from. /

I also have quite a lot of hobby's my favirate hobby's are sailing flying playing baskitball, and driving a car (wich I now is aganist the law) / I used to have a few ambitions / but I did them / these wore to go on a long voyge round Europe. / my seconed was to pilot an aircraft my theird was to to the United States of Amirca. Now that I have forfilled all these I only have one ambition to do but I know that this is impossible for me to do and you might think that I am a bit of a nut anyway I would like to go to the moon (travell in Space).

Essay Test - Myself Case 227 Greek/Turkish subsample (Mean T-unit length 11.11)

I'm one of the lucky boy in the world who is born in one of the nicest country in the world wich is Turkey. / It was a the best days in my life to live in Istanbul / the city and the people they are so special and so kindfull / so I was very unhappy to come as a child over to England / first the langwich school and the friends were my first worries. / Then after few years I start collede / I get used the new friends / and I began the like it. /

It is very difficut for me to say what I will do in few future / But first I want to finish college to get a good job lette an slowly slowly I will begin to look for a wife then I will do a nice family.

Essay Test - Myself Case 221 Greek/Turkish subsample (Mean T-unit length - 10)

I was born in England / but I was brought up like a Turk. and to think like a Turk. / My father is a Teacher. / My mother is a machiness. / My mother did not to go to school when she was in Cyprus, because her mother did not let her. / Those days it was a tuff life. /

My father was not brought up by his parents. / They both died when he was four years old. / May be that is why my father is striked on me. / that could be one reson and the others because he knows about the Turkish history and the English history. / My father does not smoke, drink or gamble. This is why I like my father but sometimes he is too striked.

Because I am a Turk I must not go out, at night or talk to boy's. It is not ny thought if I do not listen to him. My reson is because I was brought up by an English lady and I was born hear in England.

If I was born in Turkey I would agree with my father.

My mother understands she lets me do what I like, well not every thing. Besides I don't like going out very much. Because I was brought up like a Turkish girl and I am proud of it.

Essay Test - Myself Case 207 Greek/Turkish subsample (Mean T-unit length - 11.11)

I was bron on Truesday middnight 1955, at the end of September, / This was in Cyprus, / by the age of one I learn to speak and walk, / But my Father having a farm was to difficult for him to leave me on my on / so what they decided to was to take me with them to the from / of course I could not do outhin on the from / so what my mother did was to tie a hamock on the tree / and I use to rock on they'er all day long / and my mother and father use to plant vegtables in the fileds. / And sometimes I use to get up and sit in the hamock and cry. Then my father use to come and pick me up and hold me in his arms and he use to took to me and

I use to liseen to me but did not undesstand him. but by the age of for I remembere my father toking to the from to help him I could not do anything like reoly working so I used to do light staff like picking to tomatoes cocumberes and runerer beans I use to work from 8, till 8 o'clock but use to sleep in the olfter noon. But when when I got to the Age 6 I use to work from 6 a.m. to 6 oclock p.m. I remember I use to be very turd and on my feet I had blisters.

Essay Test - Myself Case 172 Greek/Turkish subsample (Mean T-unit length - 10)

I remember the first day I arrived in England. / It was raining / After a few days the rain had stop and began to snow / by that time I won't to go home to Cyprus where the sun alway shown and the wind was cool. / I never went back because my mother never let me. / I was disopointed off cause. / So I went to school. / I injied it because in Cyprus it was different / if you smiled (you would get) talk whisper. / or have long hair nail unpolished boot yo would get the cain or cut your hair or pull your ear. / And then the time came when I hade to leave. My secondary school was tollington Park I was scared because I was fat very fat I got in It happened. Again everyone was teasing me for two year all of a suddern I thort to myself I would take wait lifting I bear me big strong ever since that day.

I puched Big Zacks in the mouth. They named me Big Chris I made my repputaition every one new me. I took the piss about them because I remenber when I was fat chris the time came when I had to leave the school I didn't take my exams I went out to work with one of my cousen a year I have been working as a cutter and I reliesed it was not for me so I left my work and stayed out of work for four months. Then I dissided to go to college. And I new my job is a Electrician And here I am tryin to pass my exams.

Essay Test - Myself Case 198 Greek/Turkish subsample (Mean T-unit length - 9.09)

I was born in Cyprus on the 27th of August 1956. / My mother is a Turkish-Cypriot / and my father is Turkish. / We lived in Cyprus for eight years my parents my sister and myself. /

Then in the year 1963 in October, we imagrated to England. / I was eight years old when we came, / and my sister was five. / I had gone to school for one and a half years in Cyprus / and I didn't have much of a chance to learn turkish very well, / though I could speak it, I can write very little in proper grammer. / So when I started school here in London, English wasn't very difficult for me to learn. / I went to Gayhurst Infants and Primary School. Then at the age of eleven I went to Edith Cavell school, up until the fifth year. It was then that I decided that I wanted to go to college.

I had made up my mind that once a person is away from friend you would be able to get 'O' levels and pass exams much better, because a person I think could study better that way. So I applied for this college and I was excepted. At the moment I now have two brothers and two sisters younger than myself and we are all happily living in Dalston have this present day.

My sister Nursel is thirteen, then my brother Ahmet is nearly eight years, then another sister Aynur is nearly six then finaly my younger brother Hussein.

Essay Test - Myself Case 223 Greek/Turkish subsample (Mean T-unit length - 8.33)

I was born in Turkey. / I had a very happy childhood. / We had a big house with a garden in front of it. / Fourteen years of my life I lived in that house / and I loved it. / My parents used to be very nice to me. / We used to get on well. / I've got a smaller brother, / We don't really understand each other. / Although the difference between our ages is only two years, we just don't get on well. / But I guess there are lots of brothers and sisters like us. / I had lots of friends in school / and I was very happy untill we decided to come to England. My parents wanted us to have a good start in life. So we came here, to London, two years ago.

I hated it at first. I didn't have any friends at all. I didn't know anyone. I am a friendly type, I mean I don't mind talking to anyone but the problem was that I didn't know a word in English. I had to wait 3 months to go to school where I could learn English. You could imagine me in that 3 months without any friend to talk to. My parents went to work so my brother and I had to stay at home. We would have gone out, if we only knew where to go and how to come back. I used to sit and cry sometimes. There was nothing to do or no one to talk to. Then I started to school. At first, it wasn't very easy there as well. I didn't know what the teacher was talking about in 3-4 weeks. Then I gradually started to talk and understand what they were saying. I made lot's of friends in a month. And in 6-7 months I had no difficulties at all. I was happy again. I knew the language and the place by then.

Then I started having troubles with my parents. I wanted to go out but they wouldn't let me, they still don't anyway. They say that I could go out as much as I like after I've got my 'O' levels. And this is the only thing that makes my life a misery. I'm sure I'll get my 'O' levels. I always work hard and going out wouldn't make any difference at all. I try to understand them and I do but they don't understand me. I want to

enjoy myself like my friends. I wish they could just try a bit hard and understand me. I don't think they ever will though.

Essay Test - Myself Case 189 Greek/Turkish subsample (Mean T-unit length - 11.11)

My story begins on June 15th 1956. / I was born during the civil war in a suburb of Nicosia which is the capital of Cyprus. / The first two years of my life do not stand out clear in my mind. / When I was two years old I remember moving to a different part of the suburb. / We moved to a typical suburban, semi-detached house. / There was five of us. My parents, my older brother and sister and myself. /

My dad had an office-job in the city / and I suppose we were classed as upper lower-class. / Our house was on the outskirts of the Suburb / and there were plenty of fields and forests which I explored as a young boy. Something which sticks out in my mind very clearly is the time I went into the forest alone and I saw a pack of hungry dogs eating a lamb. From then on I never went near that forest again.

I started school when I was seven years old and I enjoyed the first few weeks. During the third week I was hit by a teacher and from then on I didn't like school. I stayed in the school for about a year and then I learned that we were to move to England so my mum who was ill can have treatment. We arrived in England in January 1964. It was very cold and foggy and it was exactly as I had been told it was. When I was in Cyprus I got the impression that money grew on trees, in England. When I came over here though it was completely different. We had no money and we had to rent a two roomed flat. My dad had to lend some money and it was several months before he found his feet again. I went to the local Junior school and within the first few months I was mastering the language problem. I found it quite easy to adapt to the Englishway of life. Two days of the week I went to English school where I had special English lessons. Only a

year had passed and I was speaking fluent English. For 1½ years I lived in Tottenham and then I moved to Hornsey into a bigger house. In 1967 I went to a Comprehensive school and at the same time I moved to Harringay. After three years in a rented house we were able to buy our own house. We liked Harringay so we bought a house which was only two roads down from the old road. In the 5th year I decided to leave school because I didn't like Holloway school. I wanted to continue my education so I came to college.

A P P E N D I X V I I I

COPIES OF TESTS, MARKING KEYS AND CODING SHEET

(i) Test 1

(ii) Test 1 answer sheet

(iii) Test 1 marking key

(iv) Test 2

(v) Test 2 marking key

(vi) Picture used in oral and written Picture Tests.

(vii) Reading Test

(viii) Manchester Reading Test

(ix) Listening Discrimination Test 1

(x) Listening Discrimination Test 2

(xi) Record of the Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale, Form 2 Junior (1948) and the Standard Progressive Matrices, Sets A, B, C, D and E.

(xii) Questionnaire

(xiii) Coding sheet

(xiv) Teacher-student rating scale (discarded).

TEST ONE — 100 Items

1. Every Saturday I ..... to the cinema.
a) am going b) going c) go d) goes

2. I .....her getting on a bus yesterday.
a) was seeing b) sees c) see d) saw

3. .....your exam last year?
a) you pass b) were you passing c) did you pass d) you passing

4. She arrived ... London.
a) at b) to c) in d) —

5. What ..... if I visit you?
a) you do b) would you do c) will you do d) you would do

6. ..... breakfast at 7.0 a.m. everyday?
a) Are they having b) Do they have c) They are having d) They having

7. What time ..... ?
a) it is b) is it c) is d) the is

8. What ..... with yourself yesterday?
a) you do b) do you c) did you do d) you doing

9. I ..... shopping all day and was glad to get home.
a) were b) had been c) has been d) have been

10. His father ..... out.
a) let him to go b) let him go c) lets him to go d) letting him go

11. What ..... if he had been late?
a) would happened b) would happen c) would have happened
d) will have happened

12. He's tired ..... ?
a) is it b) isn't it c) isn't he d) arn't he

13 Where ..... ?
a) you live b) live you c) do you live d) you living

14. You ..... that I can fly do you?
a) aren't believing b) don't believe c) beleive d) are believing

15. He hasn't given us ..... money.
a) some b) a c) any d) an

16. He went out after .....
a) having eaten b) having eating c) eaten d) having eat

17. The film was not ..... interesting as I had hoped.
a) so b) more c) less d) much

18. She ..... for forty minutes and she is very angry.
a) have been waiting b) is waiting c) has been waiting
d) were waiting

TEST ONE

19. Her mother ..... cook the dinner.
a) make her b) makes her c) makes her to d) make her to

20. If I ..... you I'd have a holiday.
a) was b) would be c) were d) be

21. He had difficulty .... making himself understood.
a) by b) in c) to d) on

22. What ..... about now?
a) you talk b) are you talking c) do you talk d) you talking

23. He was .... late .... he lost his job.
a) so....that b) so....as c) as....as

24. You ..... get ready.
a) must to b) are must c) must d) must be

25. Did you know I ..... late?
a) was going to be b) going to be c) were going to be
d) will going to be

26. They ..... on holiday two months ago.
a) go b) went c) goes d) were going

27. ..... they ever lived in London before?
a) — b) Has c) Did d) Have

28. While they ..... they saw a friend.
a) have walked b) were walking c) have been walking d) had been

29. The doors ..... mended.
a) has been b) been c) have been, d) were been.

30. ..... to go out at the weekend ?
a) Do they like b) Are they liking c) Like they d) Does they like

31. This bag ..... to me.
a) belong b) belongs c) belonging d) is belonging

32. She asked ..... go.
a) if he could b) whether he could c) if he can d) whether he can

33. He went .... home.
a) at b) — c) to d) in

34. They took their books ..... ?
a) took they b) aren't they c) didn't they d) don't they

35. ..... go to college every day.
a) she b) they c) her d) them

36. I ..... swimming tonight.
a) is going b) am going c) — d) going

37. Have you .... match?
a) some b) a c) any d) an

38. Before ..... he ate his breakfast.
a) having wash b) washed c) washing d) having washing

39. Has she seen ..... in the mirror ?
a) she b) herself c) herself she d) she herself

40. They ..... be there.
a) ought b) ought to c) to d) ought will

TEST ONE

41. They ..... working all evening and are very tired.
a) been b) has been c) — d) have been

42. He ..... there next week.
a) go b) will go c) going d) went

43. I ..... television when my friend arrived.
a) watching b) was watching c) were watching d) watch

44. How long ..... here?
a) you have been living b) you been living c) have you been living d) you has been living

45. You ..... finished your work yet.
a) aren't b) hasn't c) haven't d) not

46. What ..... in your bag ?
a) you got b) have you got c) you have d) you having

47. Where ..... live if you could choose?
a) you b) would you c) will you d) you would

48. He was ashamed ..... his friend.
a) to b) of c) towards d) with

49. He won't go ..... ?
a) won't he b) will he c) isn't he d) isn't it

50. Cakes are very nice because ..... sweet.
a) it taste b) it tastes c) they taste d) they tastes

51. They ..... every day by my sister.
a) seen b) is seen c) are seen d) are saw

52. He has very ..... friends.
a) few b) a few c) a little d) less

53. ..... he passed his exam.
a) Having worked hard b) Work hard c) Having working hard d) Works hard

54. She is ..... him.
a) tallest than b) tallest as c) taller than d) taller as

55. I ..... go.
a) want you to b) want you c) wants you to d)want you should

56. We ..... my aunt tomorrow.
a) going to visit b) are going to visit c) have gone to visit d) were gone to visit

57. The dinner we ..... yesterday was horrible.
a) eaten b) eat c) ate d) eated

58. The discussion ..... yesterday.
a) prolonged b) was prolonged c) prolonging d) have prolonged

59. ..... you been to her house?
a) Has b) — c) Have d) Is

60. ..... on holiday every year?
a) Are they going b) Do they go c) they going d) go they

61. I told him .....
a) that he get up b) to get up c) whether he get up d) get up

62. She was doubtful ..... her chance of winning.
a) with b) by c) about d) to

TEST ONE

63. You have seen her ..... ?
a) isn't it b) haven't you c) won't you d) is it

64. Will you ..... me that book please. ?
a) carry b) bring c) see d) have

65. Where..... now ?
a) you go b) you are going c) are you going d) going

66. I ..... when it is 6 o'clock.
a) will leave b) would leave c) left d) leaving

67. There are only ..... knives in the drawer.
a) few b) a few c) a little d) less

68. ..... he thought about his girl friend.
a) While working b) While works c) While having worked
d) While having work

69. They came to see ..... yesterday.
a) we b) us c) our d) ourselves

70. I ..... yesterday.
a) could no see b) could not see no c) could not see any
d) could see not

71. They ran .... to get there quickly.
a) so - that b) so - as c) as - as

72. We are going to make it .....
a) we b) we ourselves c) ourselves d) with we

73. ..... tomorrow?
a) Will they come b) Is they coming c) They come d) come they

74. ..... at home yesterday?
a) You working b) Where you working c) Was you working d) Do you work

75. She was asked to come and ..... her holiday here.
a) spent b) spend c) spending d) spends

76. Where ..... ?
a) the book is b) is the book c) the book it is d) is book

77. The work ..... by her mother.
a) were finished b) was finished c) was finishing d) finished

78. He ..... since 3 o'clock.
a) been sleeping b) have been sleeping c) has been sleeping
d) sleep

79. When I called my sister ..... didn't answer.
a) her b) him c) he d) she

80. ..... before they came here?
a) Have they studied b) Had they studied c) has they studied
d) Did they studied

81. ..... I have been here I have been very happy.
a) From b) Since c) Now d) Then

82. What ..... doing now?
a) you b) are you c) —— d) you are

83. Where would you go if I ..... you permission?
a) give b) gave c) would give d) will give

TEST ONE

84. I ..... to London tomorrow.
a) go b) am going c) goes d) going

85. How ..... money do you earn?
a) many b) much

86. ..... finished by 8 o'clock?
a) Will that b) Will that be c) Were that be d) Would that

87. She doesn't smoke .... many cigarettes .... she used to.
a) so - that b) so - as c) as - as

88. They told me they ..... visit me.
a) was going b) going to c) were going to d) would going to

89. Of the three of us you are the
a) fatter b) fattest c) more fatter d) most fattest.

90. After he ..... he went out.
a) eaten b) have eaten c) had eaten d) has eaten

91. She ..... by her friends the week before.
a) had been seen b) been seen c) have been seen d) has been seen

92. My sister ..... to my mother at the moment.
a) talks b) is talking c) talk d) talking

93. How ..... spoons of sugar would you like in your coffee?
a) many b) much

94. She works ..... than I do.
a) fastest b) faster c) the fastest d) the faster

95. ..... am going.
a) Myself b) Myself I c) I myself d) I myselves

96. Because he ..... the film once he decided not to go again.
a) had seen b) have seen c) saw d) was seeing

97. May I have ..... orange?
a) several b) a.c) any d) an

98. They ..... their work when the lesson ended.
a) haven't finished b) hadn't finished c) hasn't finished
d) wasn't finished

99. The film ..... yet.
a) hasn't been shown b) been shown c) not been shown d) hasn't shown

100. I ..... to be seen wearing that dress.
a) won't like b) won't c) wouldn't like d) wouldn't

HACKNEY AND STOKE NEWINGTON COLLEGE
FOR FURTHER EDUCATION

NAME: ..... TEST NUMBER .....

TIME COMMENCED ..... TIME FINISHED .....

1.	A	B	C	D	51.	A	B	C	D
2.	A	B	C	D	52.	A	B	C	D
3.	A	B	C	D	53.	A	B	C	D
4.	A	B	C	D	54.	A	B	C	D
5.	A	B	C	D	55.	A	B	C	D
6.	A	B	C	D	56.	A	B	C	D
7.	A	B	C	D	57.	A	B	C	D
8.	A	B	C	D	58.	A	B	C	D
9.	A	B	C	D	59.	A	B	C	D
10.	A	B	C	D	60.	A	B	C	D
11.	A	B	C	D	61.	A	B	C	D
12.	A	B	C	D	62.	A	B	C	D
13.	A	B	C	D	63.	A	B	C	D
14.	A	B	C	D	64.	A	B	C	D
15.	A	B	C	D	65.	A	B	C	D
16.	A	B	C	D	66.	A	B	C	D
17.	A	B	C	D	67.	A	B	C	D
18.	A	B	C	D	68.	A	B	C	D
19.	A	B	C	D	69.	A	B	C	D
20.	A	B	C	D	70.	A	B	C	D
21.	A	B	C	D	71.	A	B	C	D
22.	A	B	C	D	72.	A	B	C	D
23.	A	B	C	D	73.	A	B	C	D
24.	A	B	C	D	74.	A	B	C	D
25.	A	B	C	D	75.	A	B	C	D
26.	A	B	C	D	76.	A	B	C	D
27.	A	B	C	D	77.	A	B	C	D
28.	A	B	C	D	78.	A	B	C	D
29.	A	B	C	D	79.	A	B	C	D
30.	A	B	C	D	80.	A	B	C	D
31.	A	B	C	D	81.	A	B	C	D
32.	A	B	C	D	82.	A	B	C	D
33.	A	B	C	D	83.	A	B	C	D
34.	A	B	C	D	84.	A	B	C	D
35.	A	B	C	D	85.	A	B	C	D
36.	A	B	C	D	86.	A	B	C	D
37.	A	B	C	D	87.	A	B	C	D
38.	A	B	C	D	88.	A	B	C	D
39.	A	B	C	D	89.	A	B	C	D
40.	A	B	C	D	90.	A	B	C	D
41.	A	B	C	D	91.	A	B	C	D
42.	A	B	C	D	92.	A	B	C	D
43.	A	B	C	D	93.	A	B	C	D
44.	A	B	C	D	94.	A	B	C	D
45.	A	B	C	D	95.	A	B	C	D
46.	A	B	C	D	96.	A	B	C	D
47.	A	B	C	D	97.	A	B	C	D
48.	A	B	C	D	98.	A	B	C	D
49.	A	B	C	D	99.	A	B	C	D
50.	A	B	C	D	100.	A	B	C	D

TEST 1. MARKING KEY

1.	C	51.	C
2.	D	52.	A
3.	C	53.	A
4.	C	54.	C
5.	C	55.	A
6.	B	56.	B
7.	B	57.	C
8.	C	58.	B
9.	B	59.	C
10.	B	60.	B
11.	C	61.	B
12.	C	62.	C
13.	C	63.	B
14.	B	64.	B
15.	C	65.	C
16.	A	66.	A
17.	A	67.	B
18.	C	68.	A
19.	B	69.	B
20.	C	70.	C
21.	B	71.	B
22.	B	72.	C
23.	A	73.	A
24.	C	74.	B
25.	A	75.	B
26.	B	76.	B
27.	D	77.	B
28.	B	78.	C
29.	C	79.	D
30.	A	80.	B
31.	B	81.	B
32.	B	82.	B
33.	B	83.	B
34.	C	84.	B
35.	B	85.	B
36.	B	86.	B
37.	B	87.	C
38.	C	88.	C
39.	B	89.	B
40.	B	90.	C
41.	D	91.	A
42.	B	92.	B
43.	B	93.	A
44.	C	94.	B
45.	C	95.	C
46.	B	96.	A
47.	B	97.	D
48.	B	98.	B
49.	B	99.	A
50.	C	100.	C

HACKNEY AND STOKE NEWINGTON COLLEGE
FOR FURTHER EDUCATION

TEST TWO

1.	Every Saturday I ..... to the cinema.	(to go)
2.	I ..... her getting on a bus yesterday.	(to see)
3.	..... your exam last year?	(to pass)
4.	She arrived ..... London.	
5.	What ..... if I visit you?	(to do/you)
6.	..... breakfast at 7.0 a.m. every day.	(to have/they)
7.	What time .....?	
8.	What ..... with yourself yesterday?	(to do/you)
9.	I ..... all day and was glad to get home.	(to shop)
10.	His father ..... out.	(to letgo/him)
11.	What ..... if he had been late?	(to happen)
12.	He's tired .....?	
13.	Where .....?	(to live/you)
14.	You ..... that I can fly, do you?	(to not believe)
15.	He hasn't given us ..... money.	
16.	He went out after	(to eat)
17.	The film was not ..... interesting as I had hoped.	
18.	She ..... for forty minutes and she is very angry.	(to wait)
19.	Her mother ..... cook the dinner.	(to make/her)
20.	If I ..... you I'd have a holiday.	(to be)
21.	He had difficulty ..... making himself understood.	
22.	What ..... about now?	(to talk/you)
23.	He was ..... late ..... he lost his job.	
24.	You ..... get ready.	(must)
25.	Did you know I ..... late?	(going/to be)
26.	He ..... on holiday two months ago.	(to go)
27.	..... they ever lived in London before?	
28.	While they ..... they saw a friend.	(to walk)
29.	The doors ..... mended.	(been)
30.	..... to go out at the weekend?	(to like/they)
31.	This bag ..... to me.	(to belong)
32.	"Can I go?" She asked whether she	(to go)
33.	He went ..... home.	
34.	They took their books .....?	
35.	..... go to college every day.	
36.	I ..... swimming tonight.	(to go)
37.	Have you ..... match?	
38.	Before ..... he ate his breakfast.	(to wash)
39.	Has she seen ..... in the mirror?	
40.	They ..... be there.	(ought)
41.	They ..... working all evening and are very tired.	(to be)
42.	He ..... there next week.	(to go)
43.	I ..... television when my friend arrived.	(to watch)
44.	How long ..... here?	(to live/you)
45.	You ..... finished your work yet.	(not)
46.	What ..... in your bag?	(to have got)
47.	Where ..... if you could choose?	(to live/you)
48.	He was ashamed ..... his friends.	
49.	He won't go .....?	
50.	Cakes are very nice because ..... sweet.	(to taste)

HACKNEY AND STOKE NEWINGTON COLLEGE
FOR FURTHER EDUCATION

TEST TWO

PAGE TWO

51. They ..... everyday by my sister (to see)
52. He has very ..... friends.
53. ..... he passed his exam. (to work hard)
54. She is taller ..... him.
55. I ..... go. (to want/you)
56. We ..... my aunt tomorrow. (going/to visit)
57. The dinner we ..... yesterday was horrible. (to eat)
58. The discussion ..... yesterday. (to prolong)
59. ..... you been to her house?
60. ..... on holiday every year? (to go/they)
61. I told him ..... (to get up)
62. She was doubtful ..... her chance of winning.
63. You have seen her .....?
64. Will you ..... me that book please.
65. Where ..... now? (to go/you)
66. I ..... when it is 6 o'clock. (to leave)
67. There are only ..... knives in the drawer.
68. While ..... he thought about his girlfriend. (to work)
69. They came to see ..... yesterday.
70. I ..... people in the park. (not to be able to see)
71. They ran .... to get there quickly.
72. We are going to make it ..... (to come/they)
73. ..... tomorrow? (to work/you)
74. ..... at home yesterday? (to spend)
75. She was asked to come and ..... her holiday here. (to be/the book)
76. Where .....? (to finish)
77. The work ..... by her mother. (to sleep)
78. He ..... since 3 o'clock.
79. When I called my sister ..... didn't answer. (to study/they)
80. ..... before they came?
81. ..... I have been here I have been very happy. (you/to do)
82. What ..... now? (to give)
83. When would you go if I ..... you permission? (to go)
84. I ..... to London tomorrow.
85. How ..... money do you earn? (to be/that)
86. .....finished by 8 o'clock?
87. She doesn't smoke ..... many cigarettes ..... she used to. (to visit)
88. They told me they ..... me. (fat)
89. Of the three of us you are the ..... (to eat)
90. After he ..... he went out. (to see)
91. She ..... by her friends the week before. (to talk)
92. My sister ..... to my mother at the moment.
93. How ..... spoons of sugar would you like in your coffee? (fast)
94. She works ..... than I do.
95. I ..... am going. (to see)
96. Because he ..... the film once he decided not to go again. (to finish/not)
97. May I have ..... orange? (to show/not)
98. They ..... their work when the lesson ended. (not/to like)
99. The film ..... yet.
100. I ..... to be seen wearing that dress.

TEXT BOUND INTO THE SPINE

TEST 2. MARKING KEY

e following answers have been considered correct. (Spelling mistakes and ommissions
e marked wrong as are answers which include misused apostrophes. Ommission of
pital letters, at the beginning of sentences, for example, was allowed.)

go / am going / will go / went / have gone / will have gone.
saw / had seen.
Did you pass.
in
will you do / are you going to do
They have
is it
did you do / were you doing
had been shopping / was shopping
let him go / lets him go / had let him go
would have happened / might have happened
isn't he / is he
do you live / are you living / have you lived / have you been living
don't believe
any / enough / our / much
having eaten / eating / had eaten.
so / as
has been waiting / had to wait / has waited / waited
makes her / made her / has made her / had made her.
were
in
are you talking / will you talk / do you want to talk.
so... that / very... and / always... so.
must
was going to be / am going to be
went / was going
Have
were walking / walked
have been / had been.
Do they like / Would they like
belongs
could go
— / to his / to their / to her / to our / back
didn't they / did they
They, you, we, I, he, she, ought to / have to: I, you, they, we, My friends,
my cousins and other plural nouns.
am going / shall go / will go / am to go
a / got a / been to the / seen the / watched the / struck the.
washing / he washed / had a wash
herself
ought to
have been / are
will go / should go / is going
was watching / watched
have you been living / have you lived
have not / haven't
have you got
would you live
of / in front of
will he / won't he / where
they taste
are seen / were seen / had been seen / have been seen
few / good / nice and other adjectives.
having worked hard / working hard / by working hard / He worked hard and /
because he worked hard / when he worked hard / because of hard work

TEST 2. MARKING KEY CONTINUED

54. than
55. want you to
56. are going to visit / are visiting
57. ate
58. was prolonged / became prolonged
59. Have
60. Do they
61. to get up
62. about / of
63. haven't you
64. bring / lend / pass / give / hand
65. are you going / do you go
66. will leave / am leaving / leave / shall leave
67. a few / blunt / kitchen / any number except one
68. working / he worked / he was working
69. us / me / you / him / her / my aunt / cousin / friend etc / any name
70. couldn't see(any) / was not able to see (any)
71. so... as / in.. order / fast / very fast / their hardest.
72. ourselves / together / easily / now.
73. Will they come / are they coming / do they come.
74. Were you working / Did you work.
75. spend
76. is the book / will the book be
77. was finished / had been finished / has been finished / is finished
78. has been sleeping / has slept.
79. she
80. Had they studied / Did they study.
81. since / ever since / when
82. Are you doing / will you do / do you do / are you going to do.
83. gave / were to give / give
84. am going / shall go / will go
85. much
86. Will that be / was that
87. as... as / so... as / very... like.
88. were going to visit / would visit
89. fattest
90. had eaten / ate
91. had been seen / was seen
92. is talking / isn't talking
93. many
94. faster
95. myself / too / said I / hope I / think I
96. had seen
97. an / that / this
98. had not finished / did not finish
99. has not been shown / is not showing
100. would not like / do not like.

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The Gorbals, Glasgow 1948

Reading Test

Jean works as a typist in a large office in town. Every morning she gets up at 7.30 a.m. and, at 8.00 a.m., she leaves her house and walks to the 73 bus stop where she waits, sometimes about fifteen minutes, for the bus that takes her to Oxford Street.

When the bus comes she usually goes up the stairs to the top deck. She likes to sit in the front from where she looks into the shop windows and watches the traffic on the roads.

If she gets into town early enough she goes to a cafe and has a cup of coffee before going to the office. Often she meets two other typists there and they sit and talk about what they did the night before.

Once in the office, they work until eleven o'clock when they have a break for tea. At one o'clock they have dinner and Jean usually has her dinner in the staff canteen; she likes salads as she is slimming most of the time.

At two o'clock she and her friends go back to work and she types all afternoon. Usually she feels tired and ready to go home by four o'clock but she has to stay until 5.00 p.m. when, with the rest, she leaves the office and walks back along Oxford Street to wait, once more, for the 73 bus which takes her home.

MANCHESTER READING COMPREHENSION TEST (SEN.) 1

School of Education, University of Manchester

DO NOT OPEN THIS BOOK UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD AND DO NOT TURN IT OVER

Not to be filled in by pupil

Page	Score
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	
Total	

Age	Years	Completed months

Standard Score	
Marker's Initials	

BUT FILL IN THIS SECTION AT ONCE:

Today's date.....

Full Name : Surname.....

Christian name(s).....

.....

Name of School.....

.....

Class .....

Age in years .....

Year of birth .....

Date of birthday .....

READ THIS: IT TELLS YOU WHAT TO DO

1. **The questions in this booklet are to find out how well you understand what you read. Read each story before you answer questions on it.**
2. **You will be told when to begin. Do not open this book until you are told.**
3. **Answer the questions as quickly and as carefully as you can.**
4. **If you alter an answer be sure it is clear.**
5. **You will have 45 MINUTES to do this paper.**
6. **Do not ask any questions after you have been told to start. Just do what you think is right.**

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON PRESS LTD

The questions in this booklet are to find out how well you understand what you read. Read each story before you answer questions on it.

The little white dog, not heeding his master's whistle, ran across the road and disappeared underneath the large red gates of the mysterious house.

Now answer these questions:

1 What colour were the gates of the house ? .. .. ( ) 1

2 What colour was the dog ? .. .. ( ) 2

3 What word describes the size of the gates ? .. .. ( ) 3

4 What word tells that the gates were probably closed ? .. .. ( ) 4

5 What was mysterious ? .. .. ( ) 5

6 What two words tell us that the little dog was disobedient ? .. .. ( ) 6

NOW READ THIS:

If one were asked to name the chief characteristic of the British landscape, one would answer "trees". Heather, maybe, for the Scottish Highlands, but trees for Britain as a whole. Elm in the Severn Valley, elm and oak and willow and many others for the Thames, beech for the Chilterns and the chalk country generally, pine in the little hills of Surrey, juniper and thorn on the rolling South Downs, ash and birch on the cold uplands, alder climbing up wet hillsides, willow lining streams, chestnut fringing roads in suburbs.

Now answer these questions:

7 What is characteristic of uplands in Scotland ? .. .. .. ( ) 7

8 We are told that elm grows beside two rivers. Write the names of these rivers in the brackets. .. .. ( ) 8

9 In the outskirts of towns the trees lining the roads are often .. .. ( ) 9

10 What would you be likely to find on cold, wet hills, in addition to birch and alder ? .. .. ( ) 10

11 How many different kinds of trees are mentioned in this passage ? .. ( ) 11

GO STRAIGHT ON

3

NOW READ THIS:

Hugh Walpole's masterly and lengthy " Herries Chronicle " has a many-sided appeal. Some readers like it mainly because of its landscape painting, its panorama of the Lakeland countryside which Walpole so well described in all its changing moods and seasons, with such a sure and loving touch. Others like it for its pageantry of fashion and manners, as the story moves across the centuries, as the Herries family change their clothes, if not their spots.

Now answer the questions below. For these questions you don't have to write anything—you just put the number of the right answer in the answer brackets at the side. An example has been done for you.

Example:

Which of the following words describes the *Herries Chronicle* ? 1—short. 2—difficult. 3—long. 4—easy. 5—firm .. .. (3)

12 Some people like the *Herries Chronicle* because of its : 1—vigorous action. 2—description of fêtes and pageants. 3—description of wardrobes. 4—description of processions. 5—description of the lake country .. .. ( ) 12

13 Herries is the name of : 1—a village. 2—a family. 3—an author. 4—a painting. 5—a lakeland landscape .. .. ( ) 13

14 Walpole is : 1—a poet. 2—a politician. 3—a painter. 4—an author. 5—a fashion expert .. .. ( ) 14

15 To " change their spots " means : 1—to change clothes. 2—to move from one place to another. 3—to change character. 4—to build new houses .. .. ( ) 15

16 " Panorama " means : 1—a beautiful view. 2—an extensive view. 3—a lakeland view. 4—a landscape painting .. .. ( ) 16

GO STRAIGHT ON

NOW READ THIS:

We notice that the eyes are set in the front of the head and not at the sides as is the case with the great majority of birds. This gives them binocular vision, that is, vision in which both eyes, like our own, can focus on a given object, over a wide field of view. It is of great assistance to enable the owl to judge distance accurately when it is pouncing on some wary and agile quarry. While considering the owl's eyes, it is of interest to observe that they are fixed in their sockets and cannot be rotated as our own eyes can. How then can the owl look about him? He achieves this by having an extraordinary mobility of the head. The neck is so flexible that he can turn his head through almost a complete circle, and without moving his body he can look round sufficiently to see behind him.

Now answer these questions:

17 This is about : 1—song birds. 2—binoculars. 3—owls. 4—quarries. 5—birds of prey .. .. ( ) 17

18 This bird can see behind him by : 1—rotating his eyes. 2—having very large eyes. 3—having eyes set in the front of his head. 4—having a very flexible neck. 5—turning round .. .. ( ) 18

19 The great advantage of binocular vision is that it : 1—is like our own. 2—makes the bird able to judge distance accurately. 3—keeps the eyes fixed in the sockets. 4—enables him to see behind him. 5—makes him see in the dark .. .. ( ) 19

20 What is the one word in the last sentence but one which describes the freedom of movement of the bird's head? .. .. ( ) 20

NOW READ THIS:

The bibliographers tell us that since the invention of printing, a vast multitude of books is known to have vanished into oblivion. They have made a list of them, and the list would be a longer one if they could have included in it the books of which all trace has been lost and of which not even the names survive. And yet those old books, printed on paper and bound in calf or sheepskin, withstood, better than ours will do, the wear and tear of time. Our foolscap octavos perish in a few days, in the boxes of the book-pedlars, on those learned stone parapets that fringe the Seine, where the books of the seventeenth century, in their thick leather covers, hold their own for long months against scorching sun or corroding mist.

Now answer these questions:

21 Some old books last longer than new books because of their : 1—stronger binding. 2—larger size. 3—lack of use. 4—foolscap octavos. 5—hand printing .. ( ) 21

22 " Vanished into oblivion " means : 1—disappeared into libraries. 2—been lost without trace. 3—been stolen. 4—become illegible. 5—become useless .. ( ) 22

23 What is destroyed by the scorching sun and the corroding mist? 1—book-boxes. 2—stone parapets. 3—seventeenth century books. 4—modern books. 5—book-pedlars .. .. ( ) 23

GO STRAIGHT ON

24 Bibliographers are : 1—printers. 2—book-sellers. 3—book makers. 4—men who write books. 5—men who study books .. .. ( ) 24

25 The scene of this passage is laid in : 1—London. 2—Paris. 3—New York. 4—Exeter. 5—the British Museum .. .. ( ) 25

NOW READ THIS:

At normal angles the plate will have a negative pressure on the upper surface and a positive pressure on the lower surface. Fluid always flows from a region of high pressure to one of low pressure. Thus the air flowing back over the plate will be disturbed by air flowing from the bottom to the top surface round the ends, with the result that the negative pressure on the top and the positive pressure on the bottom are decreased near the ends of the plate. If we consider the top surface, the ends will, as a result, have a higher pressure than the centre, so that there will be a flow inwards over the top surface towards the centre, where the pressure is lowest. For the same reason the air will flow outwards on the lower surface. These streams of air flowing in different directions on the two surfaces unite at the near edge of the plate and form a twisting vortex of air behind the plate tip.

Now answer these questions:

26 What is the best description of what this passage is about ? 1—pressure. 2—fluid. 3—air. 4—air-flow over a plate. 5—air pressure and the atmosphere .. .. ( ) 26

27 At normal angles the pressure on the bottom surface of the plate will be ( ) 27

28 Near the plate tip both the negative pressure on the upper surface and the positive pressure on the lower surface are .. .. ( ) 28

29 As a result of this, the air-flow on the top surface will be towards the .. ( ) 29

30 In the second sentence, " fluid " refers to .. .. ( ) 30

31 Air on the top and bottom surfaces flows in different directions. This produces, behind the plate tip : 1—eddies. 2—cross-currents. 3—a spiral movement. 4—negative pressure. 5—united streams .. .. ( ) 31

GO STRAIGHT ON

READ THE FOLLOWING PASSAGES K, L, AND M BEFORE YOU ANSWER QUESTIONS 32-47.

K

We started well. Fifty was up on the board before a wicket had fallen. With the abnegation of a great man, I had put myself in last, and it now looked as if I should not get an innings at all. But a new bowler was put on, one of the last draft just out from home, who was reported to be useful. He clean bowled two of my best bats in his first over and three more in his next. Five for fifty-three. Then we pulled ourselves together and the score laboriously mounted up. But wickets continued to fall. We reached a hundred, but the ninth wicket fell next ball. Two runs to get to win and one wicket to fall, and I was that wicket. I confess my heart bumped; but here was the chance I had asked for—the captain's innings.

L

The farmyard cock is an incredibly grotesque creature. His furious eye, his blood-red crest, make him look as if he were seeking whom he might devour. But he is the most craven of creatures. In spite of his air of just anger, he has no dignity whatever. To hear him raise his voice, you would think that he was challenging the whole world to combat. He screams defiance, and when he has done, he looks around with an air of satisfaction. "There! that is what you have to expect if you interfere with me!" he seems to say. But an alarm is given; the poultry seek refuge in a hurried flight. Where is the champion? You would expect to see him guarding the rear, menacing his pursuer; but no he has headed the flight, he is far away, leading the van with a desperate intentness.

M

I saw then that a somewhat corpulent personage in the uniform of a gendarme was standing on the edge of the road. My attitude at the moment was sufficiently bizarre, but the expression on the face of the personage betrayed neither suspicion nor amusement: he was perfectly passive, but intimated in some way that he was quite prepared to deal successfully with any emergency that might arise. He seemed to have sprouted magically from the earth, and I was so astonished by his sudden appearance that I remained on my hands and knees and stared at him blankly.

To which of the passages does each of the following sentences "belong"? Put K, L, or M in the brackets, —nothing else.

32 "This morning I was watching the behaviour of a party of fowls." .. .. ( ) 32

33 "'Monsieur has, without doubt, lost something?' he inquired after a moment." ( ) 33

34 "As I strode out into the bright light my courage returned." .. .. .. ( ) 34

The scene of each passage is laid in a different country. Which passage belongs to each country?

35 India .. .. ( ) 35

36 France .. .. ( ) 36

37 England .. .. ( ) 37

GO STRAIGHT ON

Now answer the following questions by putting the number of the best answers in the brackets. The questions refer to the three passages K, L and M.

38 Where was the writer when he first saw the gendarme ? 1—hiding. 2—on his hands and knees. 3—striking an attitude. 4—sprouting from the earth. 5—standing on the edge of the road .. .. ( ) 38

39 What is another word for " crest " as it is used in passage L ? 1—top. 2—wattle. 3—comb. 4—cockade. 5—spur .. .. ( ) 39

40 What was the score when the captain went in ? (Write the score in the brackets) .. ( ) 40

41 When the cock raises his voice, he appears to : 1—be satisfied. 2—scream defiance. 3—be just angry. 4—give an alarm. 5—call to the hens .. .. .. ( ) 41

42 How many wickets did the new bowler take in his second over ? .. .. ..) 42

43 A " gendarme " is a : 1—soldier. 2—sailor. 3—postman. 4—general. 5—policeman .. .. ( ) 43

44 " Laboriously " means : 1—slowly and painfully. 2—quickly and skilfully. 3—with lots of running. 4—unlaboured. 5—disappointingly .. .. .. ( ) 44

45 How many runs had the opponents made in their innings ? (Write the number of runs in the brackets) .. .. ( ) 45

46 " Craven " means : 1—suspicious. 2—red. 3—cowardly. 4—bizarre. 5—challenging. 6—prepared to deal with an emergency .. .. ( ) 46

47 Which of the following phrases best fits the farmyard cock described here ? 1—a sheep in wolf's clothing. 2—a brave chanticleer. 3—the guardian of the fowls. 4—the menacer of pursuers. 5—a grotesque gargoyle .. .. ( ) 47

GO STRAIGHT ON

NOW READ THIS:

The counting of the number of inhabitants in a country is called a census. The Romans began to make them nearly two thousand years ago, but after their day no more were made for a very long time. The first modern census was taken in the United States in 1790, and in the course of the next century three-fifths of the world was counting its population, usually every ten years. In England and Wales the first census was in 1801, but it was another 80 years before the whole of the British Isles was included. In 1801, the population of England and Wales was about nine millions, less than a fifth of what it is now. After the census has been made, all sorts of information can be obtained. For example, that eighty out of every hundred English people live in towns, that more boys than girls are born in Britain, that at eighty-five women outnumber men by two to one, that mining, metal working, textiles and farming are the four trades that employ more than a million people each.

48 In modern times the first country to make a census was : .. .. ( ) 48

49 How often is a census usually taken ? Every : 1—one year. 2—five years. 3—ten years. 4—fifty years. 5—eighty years .. .. ( ) 49

50 The " textile trade " produces : 1—cloth. 2—coal. 3—inventions. 4—books. 5—slates .. .. ( ) 50

51 In what year were Scotland and Ireland included in the census ? .. .. .. ( ) 51

52 When did the Romans make their first census ? 1—1st century. 2—5th century. 3—18th century. 4—20th century. 5—2000 B.C. .. .. ( ) 52

53 For every five men of eighty-five, there were how many women of the same age ? ( ) 53

54 How many millions is the approximate population of England and Wales today ? 1—one quarter. 2—nine. 3—forty-five. 4—eighty. 5—two thousand .. ( ) 54

55 Out of every 20 English people how many live in the country ? .. .. .. ( ) 55

NOW READ THIS:

Some of the evil of my tale may have been inherent in our circumstances. For years we lived anyhow with one another in the naked desert, under the indifferent heaven. By day the hot sun fermented us, and we were dizzied by the beating wind. At night we were stained by dew, and shamed into pettiness by the innumerable silences of stars. We were a self-centred army without parade or gestures, devoted to freedom, the second of man's creeds, a purpose so ravenous that it devoured all our strength, a hope so transcendent that our earlier ambitions faded in its glare.

56 What is described as a purpose and a hope ? 1—the army. 2—a gesture. 3—the glare. 4—freedom. 5—the indifferent heaven .. .. ( ) 56

57 " Innumerable " means : 1—several. 2—few. 3—countless. 4—many. 5—thousands .. .. ( ) 57

58 At night the people described felt : 1—dizzy. 2—weary. 3—important. 4—happy. 5—small .. .. ( ) 58

59 How is the heaven above described ? 1—unconcerned. 2—clear. 3—distant. 4—blue. 5—grey .. .. ( ) 59

60 A creed is : 1—a hope. 2—a belief. 3—a poem. 4—a prayer. 5—a gesture .. ( ) 60

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TEST 1

1.	beat	bit
2.	will	well
3.	man	men
4.	end	earned
5.	cut	cat
6.	shut	shirt
7.	star	store
8.	fox	forks
9.	luck	lock
10.	really	rarely
11.	near	knee
12.	bed	bared
13.	shed	shade
14.	tale	tile
15.	fever	favour
16.	fork	folk
17.	sort	short
18.	fit	hit
19.	safe	save
20.	shop	chop
21.	vest	best
22.	chore	jaw
23.	half	hearth
24.	vet	wet
25.	sock	soak
26.	try	dry
27.	found	phoned
28.	cold	gold
29.	pig	big
30.	bang	bank
31.	mat	mad
32.	thin	thing
33.	alive	arrive
34.	some	thumb
35.	arm	harm
36.	breeze	breathe
3737.	tree	three
38.	police	please
39.	den	them
40.	host	hosed
41.	yet	jet
42.	leave	live
43.	hid	head
44.	shell	shall
45.	ten	turn
46.	drank	drunk
47.	bud	bird
48.	cart	caught
49.	stock	stalk
50.	colour	collar
51.	dear	dare
52.	be	beer
53.	ferry	fairy
54.	pen	pain
55.	paint	pint
56.	heat	hate
57.	chalk	choke
58.	rust	rushed
59.	fist	hissed
60.	proof	prove
61.	shoes	choose
62.	vote	boat
63.	batch	badge
64.	for	thaw
65.	vent	went
66.	yam	jam
67.	smock	smoke
68.	trip	drip
69.	mound	moaned
70.	ankle	angle

TEST 1 PAGE 2

71.	peach	beach	107.	sock	soak
72.	sling	slink	108.	try	dry
73.	seat	seed	109.	found	phoned
74.	sin	sing	110.	cold	gold
75.	collect	correct	111.	pig	big
76.	force	fourth	112.	bang	bank
77.	add	had	113.	mat	mad
78.	lays	lathe	114.	thin	thing
79.	tank	thank	115.	alive	arrive
80.	fierce	fears	116.	some	thumb
81.	breeder	breather	117.	arm	harm
82.	ceased	seized	118.	breeze	breathe
83.	beat	bit	119.	tree	three
84.	will	well	120.	police	please
85.	man	men	121.	den	then
86.	end	earned	122.	host	horse
87.	cut	cat	123.	yet	jet
88.	shut	shirt	124.	leave	live
89.	star	store	125.	hid	head
90.	fox	forks	126.	shell	shall
91.	luck	lock	127.	ten	turn
92.	really	rarely	128.	drank	drunk
93.	near	knee	129.	bud	bird
94.	bed	bared	130.	cart	caught
95.	shed	shade	131.	stock	stalk
96.	tale	tile	132.	colour	collar
97.	fever	favour	133.	dear	dare
98.	fork	folk	134.	be	beer
99.	sort	short	135.	ferry	fairy
100.	fit	hit	136.	pen	pain
101.	safe	save	137.	paint	pint
102.	shop	chop	138.	heat	hate
103.	vest	best	139.	chalk	choke
104.	chore	jaw	140.	rust	rushed
105.	half	hearth	141.	fist	hissed
106.	vet	wet	142.	proof	prove

TEST 1 PAGE 3

143.	shoes	choose
144.	vote	boat
145.	batch	badge
146.	for	thaw
147.	vent	went
148.	yam	jam
149.	smock	smoke
150.	trip	drip
151.	mound	moaned
152.	ankle	angle
153.	peach	beach
154.	sling	slink
155.	seat	seed
156.	sin	sing
157.	collect	correct
158.	force	fourth
159.	add	had
160.	lays	lathe
161.	tank	thank
162.	fierce	fears
163.	breeder	breather
164.	ceased	seized.

TEST 2

1.	heel	hill
2.	did	dead
3.	bad	bed
4.	head	heard
5.	hut	hat
6.	gull	girl
7.	barn	born
8.	not	nought
9	sung	song
10.	cheer	chair
11.	beard	bead
12.	dead	dared
13.	fell	fail
14.	hate	height
15.	greed	grade
16.	call	coal
17.	see	she
18.	fill	hill
19.	few	view
20.	cash	catch
21.	van	ban
22.	cheer	jeer
23.	fought	thought
24.	verse	worse
25.	got	goat
26.	train	drain
27.	town	tone
28.	come	gum
29.	rip	rib
30.	bring	brink
31.	ten	den
32.	ton	tongue
33.	glass	grass
34.	sort	thought
35.	eat	heat
36.	booze	booth
37.	tin	thin
38.	niece	knees
39.	dare	there
40.	east	eased
41.	year	jeer
42.	sheep	ship
43.	sit	set
44.	said	sad
45.	nest	nursed
46.	match	much
47.	hut	hurt
48.	jar	jaw
49.	shot	short
50.	rub	rob
51.	ear	air
52.	fee	fear
53.	merry	Mary
54.	sell	sail
55.	mate	might
56.	meal	male
57.	bought	boat
58.	parcel	partial
59.	foam	home
60.	off	of
61.	share	chair
62.	vet	bet
63.	rich	ridge
64.	free	three
65.	vile	while
66.	yolk	joke
67.	honour	owner
68.	trunk	drunk
69.	loud	lead
70.	card	guard
71.	pin	bin
72.	singer	sinker

73.	tin	din
74.	win	wing
75.	light	right
76.	pass	path
77.	is	his
78.	whizz	with
79.	tick	thick
80.	pace	pays
81.	die	thy
82.	laced	lazed
83.	heel	hill
84.	did	dead
85.	bed	bad
86.	ten	turn
87.	hat	hut
88.	gull	girl
89.	barn	born
90.	not	nought
91.	sung	song
92.	cheer	chair
93.	beard	bead
94.	dead	dared
95.	fell	fail
96.	hate	height
97.	greed	grade
98.	call	coal
99.	see	she
100.	fill	hill
101.	few	view
102.	cash	catch
103.	van	ban
104.	cheer	jeer
105.	fought	thought
106.	verse	worse
107.	got	goat
108.	train	drain
109.	town	tone
110.	come	gum
111.	rip	rib
112.	bring	brink
113.	ten	den
114.	ton	tongue
115.	glass	grass
116.	sort	thought
117.	eat	heat
118.	booze	booth
119.	tin	thin
120.	niece	knees
121.	dare	there
122.	east	eased
123.	year	jeer
124.	sheep	ship
125.	sit	set
126.	said	sad
127.	nest	nursed
128.	match	much
129.	hut	hurt
130.	jar	jaw
131.	shot	short
132.	rub	rob
133.	ear	air
134.	fee	fear
135.	merry	Mary
136.	sell	sail
137.	mate	might
138.	meal	male
139.	bought	boat
140.	parcel	partial
141.	foam	home
142.	off	of
143.	share	chair
144.	vet	bet
145.	rich	ridge
146.	free	three
147.	vile	while
148.	yolk	joke

149.	honour	owner
150.	trunk	drunk
151.	loud	load
152.	card	guard
153.	pin	bin
154.	singer	sinker
155.	tin	din
156.	win	wing
157.	light	right
158.	pass	path
159.	is	his
160.	whizz	with
161.	tick	thick
162.	pace	pays
163.	die	thy
164.	laced	lazed

RECORD

of

The Mill Hill Vocabulary Scale, Form 2 Junior

(1948)

and the

Standard Progressive Matrices Sets A, B, C, D & E

Name ..... *Date* .....

Age..... *Birth Day*..... *School or Occupation* .....

Synonyms .... *Time* .....

Definitions .... *Time* .....

.....

P.M. Score .... *Time* .....

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Other Tests

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Notes

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SET A

In each group of six words below underline the word which means the same as the word in heavy type above the group, as it has been done in the first example :

Begun.....

1 **CAP**
splash ball
hat smoke
leg mill

2 **LOAF**
string bread
coal tin
wave shoes

3 **FROCK**
sting slate
blood dress
bugle fork

4 **DAMP**
light bag
sweet wet
letter flag

5 **NEAR**
alive stiff
close post
happy busy

6 **UNHAPPY**
sad bright
scarlet small
kingly spring

7 **DISTURB**
transfer skip
lick fire
doubt upset

8 **BATTLE**
stroll light
snow bowl
fight last

9 **RECEIVE**
accept walk
believe empty
money drive

10 **VIEW**
cost store
sight jolt
rub some

11 **CONTINUE**
clash clutter
tilt keep on
read bewail

12 **STARTLE**
offer begin
dimple trim
tailor frighten

13 **PERFUME**
scent box
ledge oath
tower pouch

14 **MALARIA**
basement tune
theatre fruit
ocean fever

15 **MINGLE**
interfere mix
declare press
gamble remark

16 **FASCINATED**
ill-treated modelled
poisoned charmed
frightened copied

17 **BRAG**
choose stone
boast hope
lag jerk

18 **PROSPER**
imagine propose
trespass beseech
succeed punish

19 **ANONYMOUS**
applicable nameless
magnificent fictitious
insulting untrue

20 **VERIFY**
dedicate correct
chastise change
confirm purify

21 **RUSE**
limb paste
colour burn
rude trick

22 **FORMIDABLE**
tremendous unexpired
feasible orderly
ravishing remembrance

23 **IMMERSE**
frequent hug
reverse dip
rise show

24 **DOCILE**
passionate meek
dominant homely
careless dumb

25 **VIRILE**
demanding familiar
barbarous concise
vulgar robust

26 **SULTRY**
instinctive severe
sulky muggy
trivial solid

27 **STANCE**
partition fixed
position slope
glance grief

28 **EFFACE**
rotate adjoin
disgust mark
delete ascend

29 **SENSUAL**
controversial carnal
necessary crucial
rational careful

30 **CONSTRUE**
interpret scatter
contradict collect
prophesy anneal

31 **CONCILIATE**
congregate reverse
pacify radiate
compress strengthen

32 **GARRULOUS**
ridiculous daring
massive ugly
talkative fast

33 **LATENT**
potential discharged
overburdened delayed
ingenious hostile

Ended.....

SET B

Write down in a few words the meaning of each of the following words as it has been done for the first word.

Begun.....

1. Tomato A red fruit .....
2. Rest .....
3. Patch .....
4. Afraid.....
5. Cruel .....
6. Blaze .....
7. Ache .....
8. Squabble .....
9. Rage .....
10. Shrivel .....
11. Connect.....
12. Provide .....
13. Stubborn .....
14. Schooner .....
15. Liberty .....
16. Courteous .....
17. Resemblance.....
18. Thrive .....
19. Precise .....
20. Elevate .....
21. Dwindle.....
22. Lavish .....
23. Whim.....
24. Surmount .....
25. Bombastic.....
26. Recumbent .....
27. Envisage .....
28. Trumpery .....
29. Glower .....
30. Perpetrate.....
31. Levity .....
32. Libertine .....
33. Amulet .....

Ended.....

STANDARD PROGRESSIVE MATRICES

Test began_____ Test ended_____

A			B			C			D			E		
1			1			1			1			1		
2			2			2			2			2		
3			3			3			3			3		
4			4			4			4			4		
5			5			5			5			5		
6			6			6			6			6		
7			7			7			7			7		
8			8			8			8			8		
9			9			9			9			9		
10			10			10			10			10		
11			11			11			11			11		
12			12			12			12			12		

Time	Total	Grade

Notes

Tested by_____

E.T.H. 62. 20.000

Ref: 12.

QUESTIONNAIRE 1.

NAME (MR MRS MISS)

ADDRESS

DATE OF BIRTH AGE ON 31 st. AUGUST 1972

HOME 1. In which country were you born?

2 What was the name of the place?

3. Was it in the town or the country?

4. In what year did you come to England?

5. Name any other countries in which you have lived apart from your birthplace and England.

Country	from	to	rural / urban

6. Name and give details of all the people with whom you lived in your country of birth.

name	sex	country of birth	length of stay in your country of birth	years in which you lived with them	date left your country of birth & where went

occupation	education	first language	(Jamaican only) do they speak Creole?	do they understand?

Ref: 13.

7. Name and give details of all the people with whom you have lived since you left your birthplace: include those with whom you live now.

name indicate if relative	sex	country of birth	place where you lived with them	years in which you lived with them	years they have lived in place

occupation	education	first language	(Jamaican only) do they speak Creole	do they understand

Ref: 14.

8. With how many people do you live in London?

9. How many rooms do you have between you? Specify type eg bedroom.

10. How many other families / people live in the house?

11. What nationality are the above?

12. Do you have somewhere quiet where you can study undisturbed at home?

13. Do you share a kitchen? bathroom? toilet?

14. Is there a telephone? Your own/ for the house?

15. Do you or anyone else in your household own a car?

16 Do you or anyone else in your household own or rent a TV ?

17. How long have you lived in your present house?

18. Have there been many changes with regard to the people living in the house?

19. Are you happy with your present living accomodation?

20. Do any members of your family/ household help you with your homework? Give details, subjects etc.

EDUC. 21. Give details of your own previous and present education.

name & address school/college	type	from	to	grade reached	rural/ urban	examinations passed

Ref: 15.

22. Give details of any employment you had between leaving your last school and coming to this college

23. How did you hear of and apply to this college?

LANG. 24. What is your first language?

25 What other languages do you speak / understand?

language	speak well	speak a little	understand well	understand a little

26. At what age did you begin to learn English?

27. What languages were you taught at school?

language	class/grade in which taught-five year & stage	school	exams taken	nationality of teacher	teachers first language

28. What was the medium of instruction for each subject at each stage?

subject	class/ grade	year/ stage	school	medium of instruction	nation-ality teacher	teachers first language	exams taken

Ref: 16.

29. Do you speak Creole well? a little?

30. Jamaican only Do you understand Creole well? a little?

31. List any members of your family/household who study English at classes or by private study.

32. Do you attend any other English classes besides your daytime classes ?

33. List each person mentioned in answer to questions 6 and 7 and give details of languages used in conversation.

name	lang/s you use to speak to them	indicate often / rarely	lang/s used to speak to you	indicate often / rarely	lang/s they like you to speak to them in.	1st/ 2nd choice	lang/s they like to use to speak to you	1st/ 2nd choice	lang/s you like to use to speak to them	1st/ 2nd choice	lang/s you like them to use to speak to you	1st/ 2nd choice

Ref: 17.

34. List your six closest friends and give details about them.

name of friend	how you met	nationality	1st lang.	other lang/s spoken	lang/s you use to speak to them	1st/ 2nd choice	lang they use to speak to you	1st/ 2nd choice

35. What language do you speak most of the time when you are not in class?

36. What newspapers and magazines/journals do you and members of your family/household read?

name	newspaper etc	language written in	regularly/occasionally

37. Are you, or any member of your household, a member of a public library? Give details.

38. Do you or any member of your household visit the cinema? If so are the films seen mostly in English?

name	films seen mostly in English	in other languages specify

39. Do you watch television a) a lot b) not much c) not at all

40. Do the others in your household watch television a) a lot b) not much c) not at all

41. Give details of religion and church attendance

	religion	church attendance			nationality of majority of congregation
		never	often	seldom	
self					
mother					
father					
siblings					

Ref: 18.

42. What are your interests/hobbies?

43 Where do you pursue them?

44. Why did you come to this college?

ASPIR-ATIONS 45. Do you want to take any examinations?

46. Which ones?

47. Why?

48. What do you want to do when you leave college?

49. What do your parents /guardians want you to do when you leave?

50. What qualifications do you need for your answer to question 48?

51 What qualifications do you need for your answer to question 49?

52. How long do you expect to stay in England?

53. How long do you expect to stay in London?

54. If you expect to leave England, where do you expect to go?

55. Do you think you will ever return to your country of birth?

56. If so, when? and why?

57. If no, why not?

CASE NO. [ ]

COLS

1. JAMACIAN [ ] 1
   GREEK OR TURKISH [ ] 2
   U.K. [ ] 3 — [ ] 1-3

2. BORN IN U.K. YES [ ] 1
   NO [ ] 2 — [ ] 4

3. U.K. EDUCATION
   NONE [ ] 1
   SECONDARY CYCLE OR SECONDARY PLUS FURTHER EDUCATION CYCLE [ ] 2
   SECONDARY AND PRIMARY CYCLE [ ] 3 — [ ] 5

4. YEARS OF U.K. EDUCATION [ ] — [ ] 6-7

5. PRE U.K. EDUCATION
   NONE [ ] 1
   PRIMARY CYCLE [ ] 2
   SECONDARY CYCLE [ ] 3 — [ ] 8

6. BACKGROUND
   RURAL [ ] 1
   URBAN [ ] 2
   BOTH [ ] 3 — [ ] 9

7. INTENDS SETTLING IN U.K. YES [ ] 1
   NO [ ] 2 — [ ] 10

8. ATTENDANCE [ ] — [ ] 11-12

9. ENGLISH EXAMINATION RESULTS
   GCE 'O' PASS / CSE GRADE 1 [ ] 1
   CSE GRADE 2 [ ] 2
   CSE GRADES 3-5 [ ] 3
   NONE [ ] 4 — [ ] 13

10. TEST PERFORMANCE

1. TEST 1	[ ]	14-16
2. TEST 2	[ ]	17-19
3. ESSAY 1	[ ]	20-26
4. WRITTEN PICTURE DESCRIPTION	[ ]	27-31
5. ORAL PICTURE DESCRIPTION	[ ]	32-36
6. MANCHESTER READING TEST	[ ]	37-38
7. RAVENS MATRICES	[ ]	39-40
8. MILL HILL VOCABULARY SCALE	[ ]	41-42
9. LISTENING DISCRIMINATION	[ ]	43-48
10. READING TEST	[ ]	49-50
11. TEST 2 REPEATED	[ ]	51-53
12. ESSAY 2	[ ]	54-60

TEACHER STUDENT RATING SCALE (1 - 3)

NAME	ATTENDANCE	CLASS WORK	HOMEWORK	ATTITUDE TO WORK	CONCENTRATION	PERSISTENCE
	good 1	nearly always completes 1	nearly always 1	good 1	good 1	good 1
	fairly good 2	occasionally 2	completes 1	fairly good 2	fairly good 2	fairly good 2
	poor 3	hardly ever 3	occasionally 2	poor 3	poor 3	poor 3
			hardly ever 3			

NAME	MOTIVATION		MATURITY		EMOTIONAL PROBLEMS		OTHER PROBLEMS		CO-OPERATIVE		SOCIABILITY	
	high	1	mature	1	hardly any	1	hardly any	1	always co-operative	1	very	1
	fairly high	2	fairly mature	2	few	2	few	2	usually	2	quite	2
	low	3	immature	3	many	3	many	3	seldom	3	not very	3